The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland

Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nineteen Hundred Fourteen at Trenton and Princeton, N. J., and New York, N. Y.

NUMBER 12

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SUMMARY OF THE MEETINGS

THE ANNUAL SPRING MEETING AT TRENTON AND PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY, AS THE GUESTS OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AND OF PRINCETON UNIVERSITY, MAY 1 AND 2, 1914

Friday Afternoon, May 1, at 2:30 at the State Normal School.

Address of Welcome—DR. JAMES M. GREEN, Principal of the State Normal School.

Response—DR. ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, Editor of the History Teachers' Magazine.

General Topic: The Teaching of Local History in the Schools.

Addresses by—

DR. CALVIN N. KENDALL, Commissioner of Education of New Jersey.

DR. EDWIN E. SLOSSON, Literary Editor of "The Independent."

Discussion by—

MR. WALTER LEFFERTS, Supervising Principal, Morton Public School.

MISS LOUISE J. HEDGE, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers.

A pilgrimage over the Trenton battlefield under the guidance of members of the State Normal School.

Friday Evening, May 1, at 7:00, Dinner at the Trenton Country Club, followed by a discussion of the topic:

"Should Military History be Taught in our Schools and Colleges?"

Addresses by—

PROFESSOR ARTHUR C. HOWLAND, University of Pennsylvania.

DR. SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE, JR., South Side High School, Newark, N. J.

Saturday Morning, May 2, at 10:15 in the Faculty Room, Nassau Hall, Princeton University, the room which was the meeting place of the Continental Congress when terms of peace with England were received.

Address of Welcome—President John Grier Hibben, Princeton University.

General Topic: The Value of Research in Local History.

Addresses:

The Significance of Local History, by Professor John H. Latané, Johns Hopkins University.

Topics of Statewide Interest which are Fruitful for Research, by Professor P. Orman Ray, Pennsylvania State College.

History of the Country Church, by Professor William H. Allison, Colgate University.

The Significance of Princeton's Local History, by Professor Robert M. McElroy, Princeton University.

12:30—Annual Business Meeting.

1:30 p.m.—Luncheon in the Graduate College as guests of Princeton University. The Graduate College is located on the site of the Princeton battlefield.

Address of Welcome—Dean Andrew F. West, Princeton University Graduate School.

Lecture on The Battle of Princeton, by Professor William M. Sloane, Columbia University.

Walks over the battlefield and the campus of the University.

Joint Meeting with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, and Other Associations, as Guests of the College of the City of New York.

Saturday Morning, November 28, 1914, at 10 o'clock. Presiding officer, Miss Sarah A. Dynes, Vice-President.

General Topic: Are the Colleges and Universities Neglecting their Duty to History in the Secondary Schools?

Report of the Committee on the Training of History Teachers for the Secondary Schools. Dr. William Fairley, Commercial High School, Chairman.

Discussion:

Dr. A. B. MacLear, Hunter College.

Dean Albert E. McKinley, Temple University.

Professor A. W. Risley, State College for Teachers.

Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair.

Professor R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College.

President C. A. Herrick, Girard College.

Miss Harriet E. Wyckoff, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn.

Dr. James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn.

Professor L. R. Schuyler, College of the City of New York.

Luncheon at Fraunce's Tavern, where Washington delivered his farewell address to his officers.

An Address, The History of Fraunce's Tavern, by Henry Russell Drowne, Esq., Secretary of the Sons of the Revolution.

Pilgrimage to points of historical interest below Wall Street in Manhattan under the guidance of Dr. F. B. Kelley, of the City History Club.

WELCOME ADDRESS OF PRINCIPAL JAMES M. GREEN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON

It has been my fortune to be intimately acquainted for a number of years with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, an Association that was established for the purpose of securing the continuity of formal education from its beginning to the end of the college course, a very worthy purpose. This History Teachers Association sprang from that body, covers the same territory, and is affiliated with it in spirit as a department.

No department of education can know itself or understand its place in a scheme of education without considering education as a whole. I welcome you to-day to an institution that in a peculiar sense represents as a whole the educational activities of a community—a commonwealth.

It is my office to serve in the capacity of an administrator. The administrator must meet the people, must confer with them, must learn directly their needs and must interpret those needs in the curriculum, and must surround himself with an intelligent and appreciative body of instructors representing marked fitness in each of the branches that call for consideration.

There is no easier or better way to consider education than to reduce it to its simplest terms. If we imagine a small number of people who would live together as a community, we can readily understand their simpler needs. They would need a plain and familiar language, a simple system of measurements; they would need to know the sources of production essential to living supplies; they would need to know how to protect their health, and, may I say, *above all,* they would need to know how to so organize that they could live together in peace and happiness, and consequently in such a way that they would be helpful rather than injurious to each other.

It is the understanding and teaching of this latter phase of activity that is assigned to the department of history. Yours is the recording and reporting of the deeds of men as they throw light on the accomplishment of specific measures that are clearly in the interests of the people of our day and generation.

Our humanity is so old, so spread out, so complex, and under so many diversified conditions of birth and climate and custom, that it is difficult to separate the essential from the non-essential and be simple and direct. We are so anxious to avoid the errors of the past that we undertake to examine so much material that we lose our way in the forest of facts. It has been said that if the Bible were wiped out it could be reassembled from our literature, so incorporated is it into our life and thought. So involved has become our social literature that I have sometimes thought it would be a gain if we could wipe it out and start all over again, with the judgment we have acquired from our study of the past freed from bias and purely applied to the problems of the present.

Our local problems are our definite concern. If these problems seem too plain and commonplace to stimulate the imagination, we may observe that they are world problems as well. Roads, including railways and canals, are our Appian Ways. Our means of collecting and applying revenue are our Assizes. We determine the content of our Magna Charta in our capitols and our town meetings. Our public or common problems are chiefly weights and measures, including money, roads, the acquisition of territory, private and public, the protection of the public health, the police, educational institutions, and the nature and extent of the franchise.

The historian undertakes these problems. He must bear in mind that he is not the guardian of the past, but the servant of the present. The people of the present are more to him than any other. The battle of Trenton is significant only as a turning point in a great struggle for the better use of the franchise and a better distribution of property. If we lose sight of the significance the record will have failed of its purpose. It is men in action, local history, that should take first place in our concern and interest us so deeply that we will be careful to select from the past that which distinctly bears on the present, being careful to realize that the past should include our local past.

The history department has had our confidence, but we hope the history teacher will have our confidence so much that public administrators will turn to him with respect. It is for this department to dissolve our hope into expectation, and it is to devise ways and means to this end that we welcome you and speed you on your way.

THE TEACHING OF LOCAL HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS

CALVIN N. KENDALL

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY

This talk may be divided into three parts: First, what is the purpose or the aim in teaching local history? Second, what are the schools hereabouts and in neighboring states actually doing in the teaching of local history? Third, granting that local history is important, and, having briefly reviewed what certain school systems are doing, what are the means that may be employed in teaching local history?

As to the first part—what is the aim or purpose of teaching local history?—it occurs to us obviously that in communities or in sections of the country which have a history relating to large, sweeping problems, it is well and fitting that the pupils in the local schools should be taught the part which was played on this large stage by the community in which they live. I say this is obvious, and I find that schools in this section of the country, which is so enormously rich in historical associations, are actually accomplishing this purpose. For example, right here in this capital city of New Jersey, which was the theatre of so much that was interesting in revolutionary times, local schools are doing a good deal of work in this particular field, interesting pupils in what was done in Trenton in those historic, stirring, revolutionary times. The same thing is true in the neighboring borough of Princeton. It is not surprising that school officials and teachers should seize this obvious opportunity to give a local flavor or color to the large movements in the nation's history.

In the city of New Haven, where I was superintendent of schools for a period of five years, work of this kind is being done in the United States history classes. New Haven, as I need not point out to a body of historians, also offers opportunities for this particular kind of local history.

I am offering no apology for bringing in to a certain extent personal reminiscences. When I went out to Indianapolis from

New Haven to superintend schools in that city, the situation, so far as the local history was concerned, seemed to be somewhat different. That is to say, in no index of an elementary history of the United States does one find, possibly, the word "Indianapolis" at all; but one may find several times, perhaps, the names "Trenton" and "New Haven." Nevertheless, it was felt that there were opportunities in a comparatively new middle western city of 250,000 people for work in local history; and I believe that that is true of all cities.

But it is a different kind of local history. It is not the local history which stirs the blood with reference to great generals and campaigns in the Revolution. It is perhaps no less interesting.

Now in this second field of local history, what is it that can be done in the city or town or state which cannot point with pride to revolutionary or colonial achievements? Well, it seems to me that this can be done. That the children in the grammar schools and the high schools can be taught—and interested in that teaching—about the original settlement of the place, the causes that brought about the settlement. They can be interested in the means of transportation which brought them to the settlement. They can be interested in knowing from whence their ancestors came. They can also be interested—to be a little more concrete—in the significance of the name of the town in which they live, the name of the county in which they live, the name of the state in which they live. I recall seeing many years ago, in a county-seat town in southern Michigan, one of the most interesting exercises I have ever seen in a history class. In a seventh and eighth grammar school the teacher was teaching those children the significance of the name "Ann Arbor," the seat of the great university; of "Ypsilanti," the seat of the normal school; and the significance of the names of the counties in southern Michigan. And what is that significance? It is found in the relation of these names to Jackson's Cabinet. Those children were led by a teacher who cultivated their initiative, as all good history teachers do, to bring out the relation of the time when southern Michigan was settled to the time of the administration of General Jackson.

Children of this age may be interested in all these movements which have brought about the settlement of their town. I do not

think they are interested in a series of dates of important events, which are merely written on the blackboard.

I know of a western city in which there has been for some years a good deal of discussion as to which of two families came first to that city, and the argument has waged rather hot at times. But the children are not interested in it. They may have a passing interest in knowing where the first house was built in the town, but that is not enough. And I should like to project this discussion somewhat into the field of civics, to which your president has alluded. Indeed, I think it is impossible to teach local history independent of some teaching of civics.

Now, by the teaching of civics I do not mean such soul-stirring teaching as the discussion of how old a man must be before he can go to Congress, or the memorizing of the number of amendments to the Constitution. I am referring to that teaching of civics which has a local bearing, which has some relation to the big question of local or municipal government—to the street cleaning department, to the street car system, to the taxpayer of the community, to the schools, to the work of the board of health, to those questions which are the concern of everybody, man or woman. I believe that we need more of this kind of civic instruction in our schools.

I have tried to point out what should be the second purpose of teaching local history. But I should like to say further that through this teaching of local history some attempt should be made to train children in an understanding that the needs of a primitive country were met by establishing a church, a school, a blacksmith shop, a store, a carpenter shop. These were an absolute necessity for that community life. I think children should be made to see this: that these early institutions and these early industries were established to meet a great primitive need.

Let it relate to civics. I was interested in what your president said about the tendency of modern education to interest children and young people in that which is near, in that which is at hand. This is true of civics. It is true of geography as represented in the field excursion. It is true of arithmetic.

So in teaching local history, we are in accord with the general tendency of modern education, elementary and secondary, to treat of that which is familiar or near-by.

It is not to be forgotten, it seems to me, that one large purpose of the schools, the elementary school as well as the high school, is to give children large spiritual, mental, moral, and intellectual resources. That can be done by using this teaching in local history as a means of stirring civic pride. The late Colonel Waring, of New York, bore testimony to this in an address delivered shortly before his death, in which he said there was no more effectual means of rousing patriotism than by the right teaching of local history. Macaulay says: "A people which takes no pride in the noble achievements of remote ancestors will never achieve anything worthy to be remembered with pride by remote descendants."

We must give the children resources. It must be borne in mind that these young people in our schools will not all of them, or even a majority of them, have the opportunity for travel or of seeing remote places. We cannot confine the field of these resources merely to textbooks in history or textbooks in literature. The thing to do is to interest these children in the things that are about them.

To teach local history by means of field excursions needs a teacher who is not tied down to a textbook. The fact is that local history has not been organized. Most communities are without material in local history to which the teacher may resort. One of the great difficulties in teaching local civics is that the ordinary teacher is not trained how to teach ordinary civics because she does not know about the various branches or departments of the municipal government. There is no textbook to which she may resort.

In the second place, what is being done in this territory and in adjacent territory in the way of teaching local history?

I hold in my hand a pamphlet entitled "Know Your City Week," issued by one of the local schools here in January, 1911. It gives facts about Trenton and revolutionary landmarks.

The children of the Trenton city schools last year raised $428 for the purchase of the Douglass House. In the third grade is taught the early history of Trenton; in the sixth grade the colonial history of Trenton and New Jersey; in the seventh grade, local historical landmarks in the Revolutionary War.

I quote from a letter from the Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia:

"By law the history of Pennsylvania must be taught in all public schools. Stories of Philadelphia and stories of Pennsylvania are used. Each school is left free to work out its own plans. Revision of course of study under way."

In Princeton they have expeditions over the Princeton battlefield and to Trenton. The third grade takes up stories and history of New Jersey, Princeton being the special topic the second half of the year. Maps are drawn and pictures collected.

The book I hold in my hand is entitled "Newark Study." Its title page reads: "Newark in the public schools of Newark; a course of study on Newark, its geography, civics, and history, with biographical sketches." It is an exceedingly interesting volume. Considerable work is being done in that city in the field of local history.

Now I wish very briefly to go outside of this territory. In New Haven stories of local history in the fourth grade, are being correlated with geography; in the sixth grade there is a parallel study of local history with United States history. The city of Washington, in the fourth grade, studies Indian occupation and the significance of geographical names. Hartford teaches local history in the eighth grade.

In Springfield, Massachusetts, it is taught five times a week in one of the high schools. I wish to read very briefly from the report of the principal of one of the high schools in that city.

"The study of Springfield is undertaken with three points constantly in view: (1) To inspire a pride in the past and present greatness of Springfield; (2) To recognize in Springfield a field for fruitful employment and worthy citizenship; (3) To recognize the debt of the present for the sacrifices of the past, and so to create a willingness to continue the growth and usefulness of Springfield through the efforts of its coming citizens."

I should like to pause here to say that I believe one of the principal things that should be impressed upon the children is their indebtedness to the work—the hard work—and the self-sacrifices of their fathers and mothers and their grandfathers and grandmothers in clearing the wilderness and in making modern life possible.

To quote again from the Springfield report:

"The chronological history of Springfield is taken up by dividing the class into small groups. Each group is assigned on successive days' topics bearing on the historical outline. These papers are read before the class, the students making note of the essential points. The whole class is then held responsible for the understanding and retention of the essential points, the class being guided to a decision as to which points are essential."

The subject of colonial schools is also taken up in Springfield. This was interesting to me, because it was the only specific report that I was able to get as to what is being done in high schools. Doubtless other high schools do this work, but this is the only one of which I happened to get an account.

Providence teaches local history in various grades. In Concord, New Hampshire, a large part of the English work in the first half year relates directly to local history. So much for what is being accomplished.

Third and last, Mr. Chairman, how are we to attain these results? What shall be the method? How shall we get material for teaching local history? What shall be the resources of the teacher? What apparatus for teaching can be placed in her hands? If she has grown up in the city or town in which she is teaching, of course she has some resources and equipment which the teacher who is a stranger does not have; but as a matter of fact, very large numbers of teachers are strangers to the history and traditions of the town in which they are teaching.

I am urging that teachers should have materials with which to work. May I point out what has been done aside from the city of Newark, in the way of furnishing this material? The book that I hold in my hand is a history of Springfield, Massachusetts, by Charles H. Barrows. It is a beautiful book; it is an exceedingly readable book; it is used in the Springfield schools as a reader.

This book is "Stories of New Jersey," by the late Frank Stockton. I have heard teachers say that this is a valuable collection of New Jersey historical stories.

When I was in New Haven a committee of teachers was appointed to dig into the old archives of that city, read old newspapers, and visit historical spots. As a result of the work of that

committee there was published this little book, which was revised later. It treats of the early stories of the city of New Haven. I should like to point out that children have very little interest in chronology. They want stories.

This is another book that was published about three or four years ago for the use of New Haven schools, entitled "Early New Haven."

Now I want to refer to the experience we had in the city of Indianapolis. This little pamphlet that I have is entitled "Pioneer Indianapolis." It was written by a third grade teacher and it was written under these circumstances. She was an unusually skilful teacher of geography; she wrote a little pamphlet on the teaching of local geography; and she had—what all people do not have—some literary skill. She with some of her friends searched the old newspaper files and talked with old settlers (for the city is still comparatively young) and the result was this booklet. It was found to be an unusually interesting piece of work; but the question was how to get it published. The Chamber of Commerce in the city was asked for a contribution, which they were very glad to give; the Board of Education partly financed it; and it was published. And how was it used? It was used as a supplementary reading book in the sixth grade in the schools of that city, and I give you my word for it, it is as interesting as a novel. I wish I had time to read some of these descriptions of the early means of transportation. No trouble about interesting children in this sort of reading.

This pamphlet is entitled "The Government of Indianapolis." I am speaking of these things because I happen to be personally cognizant of them. This was written as a sort of history of the government of that city, for the use of civic classes in the high schools. It is written in a very interesting style by a prominent lawyer of the city.

Now, I believe that what is possible in one city is possible in all cities, as a means of giving teachers apparatus for teaching. We can't do it by merely talking about it; we can't do it by simply writing a course of study of local history into the curriculum, for there are many things in the curricula of public schools which you cannot find in the schools if you attempt to search for them. A course of study on paper may be one thing and the real course

of study may be another thing. But any high school teacher with interest and enthusiasm can send her pupils to a neighboring library and help them find material which is of surpassing interest.

Just briefly, with regard to method or plan, it may be said that there is not time to teach local history. Where are you going to get it in? is a common expression. In my opinion, one place to get it in is by means of good supplementary reading, reading that is worth while, as a part of the regular exercises in reading.

And I have another suggestion to make. I have a conviction that some of the time that is used in teaching ancient history and medieval history, and even English history, in our high schools might better be employed in teaching the history of the community in which the young people live and will live. In other words, to amplify this, we need more editing of textbooks, more elimination, more subtraction of material which has no possible relation to the lives these children lead, or will lead. Local history is the sort of history which functions in the life of every girl and boy in the community.

And how much opportunity there is in all this for instruction in English composition, either oral or written. Many of you have seen the history teacher and the English teacher co-operating.

Then there are the exhibits which have been held in certain places of local historic material. And in some places, if the community is young enough, the old settler may come in and talk to the young people. See to it that he is not too garrulous. I think it is wise to send the children to these old men and women of the community to learn from them some of the legends and stories which will pass out of existence with the death of these old people.

And then there is the matter of dramatization. One of the most inspiring sights I have ever witnessed was that magnificent pageant, held at Philadelphia a year ago last fall, of the history of the Delaware River. Of course that was a very elaborate affair; not many cities can organize and carry into execution such a magnificent spectacle as that was. But any high school can have a pageant illustrating the early history of that community. Not merely legendary times, nor Civil War times, but early settlers times can be portrayed in a dramatic way. Here the English teacher may again co-operate with the history teacher; the teacher of domestic art (we used to say "sewing") co-operates in the making

of the costumes; here there is something for the boy in the shops to do in the way of stage furniture and stage setting. And I have seen, in one American representative city, two thousand enthusiastic men and women observing for several nights in succession an historical pageant setting forth the early life of the community.

Every teacher knows what a tremendous impression the dramatic presentation of history makes, and we need more of it in our elementary schools and in our high schools. For it is to be remembered that many of the high school pupils are children, not young men and women, and the method of approach should be the method of approach to children.

Now, in conclusion, thanking you for your kind attention, I wish to say that this subject will not get very far simply by writing it into a course of study, as I said before, but it will get far, and it does get far, where an enthusiastic teacher or superintendent or principal, one who believes in this sort of instruction and who has the ingenuity and the enthusiasm to carry it into effect, takes it up. It is only by these means that local history will make much progress. We cannot shut our eyes to the fact that the subject presents difficulties, which can only be overcome by the teacher, principal, or superintendent who is alive to his opportunities.

And if I may venture the suggestion, the college teachers of history can do something in urging this kind of teaching. Possibly in some not far distant day, local history may be recognized in the history requirements for college entrance. Why not?

DISCUSSION

Walter Lefferts, Morton Public School, Philadelphia: Dr. Kendall has spoken of the gathering of the details of local history. Fortunately we in New Jersey and the East generally do not have to devote much labor to the gathering of such material; it already exists in abundance, and all we need to do is to use it.

What parts of local history shall we use? From the point of view of mere information it seems to me that we should use only such portions as will illuminate our national history. After all it is our national chronicle that is most important for an intelligent citizen to know—this knowledge is supposed to be the common possession of all persons who have gone through our elementary schools. In broad outline each child who graduates from the eighth grade should retain a comprehension of our country's growth and development. If he does not get that, we may say that the school has failed in one item of his education.

Local history should both lean upon and reinforce this knowledge of national history. On one hand we may avoid the pitfalls of triviality into which the local chronicler is apt to fall by selecting for our purposes only such events of local interest as have some national significance; on the other we may lend zest and definiteness to our teaching of national history by showing some local connection. The New Englanders are said, with good reason, to know national history surpassingly well because they have identified and described all the localities concerned and wrapped the whole region in a mantle of realistic romance.

But the teaching of history has another object beside the imparting of information. There is the moral object as well. I do not approve of direct sermonizing in school, but the indirect touch upon a child's imagination and ideals is not only desirable but also essential to good teaching. The skilful teacher may select from local history those events irrespective of national connection, which are worth preserving in mind for their moral effect. By anecdote and biography the fine deeds and thoughts of the home community may be recalled to the young—not as knowledge, but as inspiration. If we neglect the deft moral appeal in history we are neglecting a great opportunity, for local history would give us a close appeal to our pupils.

Louise J. Hedge, Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn: Commissioner Kendall's appeal for the study of local history as an aid to rousing children to deeds of good citizenship in their own community reminds me of how wonderfully valuable to Philadelphia part of Franklin's autobiography is for such a purpose. Though I cannot claim it as local history material in my own town, nevertheless I often recommend it as most stimulating in its suggestions as to how a citizen may help his community to start new enterprises. One of the points I have in mind is his working for street-paving. Near the market a narrow strip next the houses was paved, but in the middle of the road-way one might have to go "over shoes in dirt" to get to the market itself. Franklin persuaded the city to pave the road-way just at the market, which proved so attractive a scheme that, in the end, the trouble of the wagons in the dust or mud beyond the market proved unbearable and street-paving began. Then there was his starting of the first fire company and the plan for a circulating library—father of all the others in the country—and finally the idea of street lighting, of which he modestly disclaims being the author, but which he helped by being the second to hang a lantern before his door in order to show how fine a thing a well lighted-street would be. The tale of such service to one's town is surely helpful, quite apart from one's interest in Franklin as a man of national affairs. I myself believe that it may well be useful at times to teach local history that has no national significance, provided only that it suggests the efficient unselfish activity that is our ideal for community service.

A STRANGE VISITOR AT SCHOOL

By Edwin E. Slosson

He was a foreigner, not offensively so, but noticeably so. He used his hands and face in talking so you could tell what he was saying even when you could not understand his words on account of his queer accent. Then, too, his questions were so absurd and he had such difficulty in understanding the most ordinary things!

The superintendent showed him into the room with great politeness and told him he was at liberty to ask any question of the pupils. The stranger inquired what study was being taught and was told history.

"Of what country or people?"

"Our own."

"An excellent and important study. I will ask them a few easy questions with great pleasure. Who discovered the land in which you live?"

All voices answered in unison, "Christopher Columbus!"

The stranger looked puzzled. "Isn't that queer," he said, "that they should all get it wrong? No, children, Christopher Columbus discovered some islands thousands of miles from here, farther away than Alaska. Who discovered *this* country, this town, this county, this State of Wyoming? What, no one knows? Well, I am a stranger here and I do not know. I will ask your teacher to tell us both."

But as the teacher looked rather startled and displeased, the stranger, with his habitual politeness, said: "Doubtless you wish to bring that in at some later time. I will ask another question. What European Power once owned this country?"

Again came the answer in concert, "England."

"No, no. You are all wrong. We learned better than that even in my own school. You must have in mind some country a thousand miles from here. Think a minute and you will remember, I'm sure. What great king ruled over this land, a tyrant and a wicked man?"

"George the Third!"

"How curious! No, it was Philip the Second of Spain I had in mind. When did this country become independent?"

"1776."

"Ah, you are thinking about the East. Strange that they should know so much more about the history of New England than of their own state! But I will help you. Don't you remember one of the first battles of the war for independence, a defeat apparently, but really a victory in the way it roused the people, a little band of patriots who died to make this a free land, how they were overpowered and destroyed by the enemy? I see by your hands that you all know it. What was it?"

"Bunker Hill."

"Why, that is New England again. I meant, of course, the Alamo." Turning to the superintendent. "Do you not try to inspire them with the heroic deeds of their own history?"

"Well, you see, the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War were considered by all good citizens as infamous crimes."

"Ah, then you think the Mexican Government better than the English, and that there was less cause for rebellion against Santa Anna than against George III?"

"Not that exactly, but it was thought to be a war in the interests of the South, and so the Northerners opposed it."

"Well, that is natural. But one thing explain to me. Why do you call these men, who would sacrifice the future interests of the millions of people now living here rather than allow the opposing party to gain a temporary advantage, 'good citizens'?"

The superintendent looked confused and all he could say was that he "guessed it was because they called themselves so."

The visitor again addressed the school: "You are fortunate in living in a land so rich in romance and inspiring associations. You must know the story of its pioneers by heart; how that peculiar people, somewhat fanatical perhaps, but strong in faith, driven from their homes by religious persecution, journeyed far to the westward to find freedom to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences; how they suffered from cold and starvation, how they fought with the Indians and how they finally triumphed over the hardships of the wilderness and founded there a great city. Tell me, children, what are they called?"

"Pilgrim Fathers," came in chorus from all parts of the room.

"No, no, no. I do not make myself plain. I meant, of course, the Mormons." The stranger turned to the teacher. "So you study the history of New England here? I suppose, then, that in New England they study the history of Wyoming?"

"No, they do not; but you see children always take more interest in distant places and times long past."

"How strange! So different from the children in my own land."

"Yes, but it is true," persisted the teacher, "the children dislike the history of their own country."

The stranger looked perplexed. "One would think that the stories of Indian wars and the life of the cowboy, miner and hunter would interest them. Are these your textbooks?"

And he took up some paper-bound books lying on the desk and read their titles, *Life of Buffalo Bill* and *Sitting Bull, War Chief of the Sioux*.

"Mercy, no!" cried the indignant teacher. "I confiscated those out of one of the desks, and I am going to burn them up."

The stranger appeared likely to ask some more embarrassing questions, but the superintendent, who had recovered his equilibrium, interposed, "You see we do not teach them the history of this particular spot of ground. That is of no importance. It is their history as a race that is of the most value. Miss B——, will you conduct a recitation in your usual way to show our methods?"

The teacher began. "Knut Nelson, where did our forefathers come from?"

"Our forefathers came from England in the 'Mayflower,' in 1620."

"That is right. Patrick O'Brien, you may tell us why they came to this country."

"Because they objected to the Popish practises of the Church."

"Very good. And now I will ask little Esther Straus why her great-great-grandparents were driven out of England?"

"Because they tried to restore primitive Christianity and thought it wrong to do any work on Sunday."

"Excellent. I thought you would remember that lesson. Ivan Oblinski, tell the gentleman why the history of England is of such importance to us."

"Because of our Anglo-Saxon ancestry."

"You see," said the teacher, "that we do not neglect the important factor of race. We believe in training these young people in harmony with the ideals and traditions of their lineage."

"An excellent plan. Of what nationality are your pupils?"

"About one-third Polack and one-third Swede and the rest mixed."

"So their ancestors did not all come over in the 'Mayflower'?"

"Not exactly. There are, in fact, more immigrants landed at New York in one day now than came over in the whole seventeenth century."

"I suppose, then, your histories give a large part of their space to this later and more important immigration?"

"Well, I don't believe they more than mention it, come to think of it."

"Of course, you give two-thirds of your time to Swedish and Polish history, literature and national traditions?"

"Excuse me," interposed the superintendent, "we must pass on to the language room now."

"Oh, certainly. This is all so novel and curious to me, you know. Your problems here are unique, and, if I may so express myself, your educational methods are still more unique. I suppose you carry the same principle of racial continuity into the language work and give a good deal of attention to Slavic and Scandinavian languages?"

"Not at all; we teach Latin, Greek and French in our school."

"Ah, what is your object in selecting Latin and Greek, may I ask?"

"We did not select them. They are the traditional languages," replied the superintendent.

"Ah, certainly. How mistaken the impression we get of a foreign country, to be sure. I had been told that you had no traditions in this new country of yours, but I find, on the contrary, that you have inherited everybody's traditions."

"But the high schools have to teach Latin and Greek because the universities require them."

"Oh, when I was in the university the other day they told me that they would be glad to substitute other entrance requirements, but they would not get any students for these are what

the high schools teach. It is like two lovers holding hands for hours after it has ceased to be a pleasure, merely because either is afraid to let go lest the other suspect a waning affection."

"But so many of our words are derived from the Latin and Greek, especially scientific and technical terms, that it would be impossible to understand science thoroughly without the knowledge of these languages."

"Quite true, I see that. So it is the scientific men who insist on their students being prepared in Latin and Greek?"

"Well, no. In fact, the scientific men, almost all of them, are prejudiced against them and consider them a waste of time. But Latin and Greek literatures are the most inspiring in the world, and no one can be considered educated who cannot read and enjoy in the original the immortal works of Plato and Virgil."

"No, certainly not. It is a wonderful blessing to enter so completely into the spirit of other tongues. 'He who learns a new language acquires a new soul.' All through their lives your graduates will read with pleasure the great authors of antiquity."

The superintendent did not see any necessity for replying to this remark, doubtless because it was so obviously true, and continued: "Besides, Latin and Greek are the foundations of our own language. No one can use the English language with propriety and elegance without a knowledge of the classic languages."

"You find, then, a great superiority in your classical students in the use of their native tongue?"

"Well, not what we might expect. Those who translate too much from Latin and Greek get a wretched English style."

"So instead of acquiring a new soul they lose their own soul?"

"Of course, for practical purposes, modern languages are more important, I admit," said the superintendent.

"Yes, you said you taught French. Have you so many pupils of that nationality in the community?"

"No, there are no French children, and I do not know of a Frenchman in town."

"Then it is for the elevating and inspiring nature of the literature that you teach it?"

The superintendent hesitated, then said: "I admit it is hard to find French books fit for our young people to read, but we have

a few specially expurgated editions for their use. As I said, its practical value is the main object of a modern language."

"Yes, I see that. You select, of course, that modern language which will be most useful to your young men. We do the same in our schools. We teach the languages of our colonies and of the countries contiguous to our own and with which we are in closest touch politically and commercially. Let me see, what countries are adjacent to you in which a foreign tongue is spoken?"

"Mexico only, where they speak Spanish."

"And where do your graduates go mostly in foreign lands?"

"Some of our young men are in Panama or Cuba, some in South America."

"Spanish again. And your colonies?"

"They are all Spanish speaking."

"And with what countries are you cultivating the closest relations?"

"We aspire to control the destinies of all the nations in this hemisphere."

"And these nearly all speak Spanish. Well, you are more fortunate than we who have to teach so many different languages to cover the same points. I suppose you make Spanish the main modern language of all your schools."

"No, it is scarcely taught at all. You see there is no literature worth mentioning in Spanish except Cervantes."

"How very strange. Our critics think that Galdos and Valdes are among the greatest of living novelists, and the dramatist Echegaray got the Nobel Prize for the greatest work in literature. I believe no American author has yet received this prize." Then, turning to the teacher in charge, "What is your chief aim in teaching literature?"

"We try most to inspire the pupils with a love for the purest and loftiest products of the human intellect. This is such a prosaic and materialistic age. And the people here have such low ideals and such vulgar tastes. They prefer a comic opera or a farce to reading something edifying and instructive, like Aristophanes or Lucian. It is almost incredible, but it is a fact, that nearly all my class in the Iliad stayed out of school not long since to watch the reports of a prize fight with all its disgusting details. Right in the hard part of Homer, too, book seven, the combat between Ajax and Hector.

Shows how little they care for the intellectual life. It is very discouraging. They read no poetry except dialect stuff like Riley or Daly or Dunbar. I can't get them to read great poetry like Burns or Lowell."

"I suppose you endeavor to cultivate their artistic appreciation in other arts than literature, such as painting and sculpture?"

"No, that is impossible. We have none of the facilities."

"What facilities do you lack? You have stones and butter. It was on a stone that Giotto learned to draw, and Michel Angelo modeled his first masterpiece of butter."

"I mean that we have no great art galleries. A copy of a great painting is not equal to the original, and we can't buy a Raphael or Murillo."

"No, but that does not apply to sculpture."

"Why not?"

"Because you can get a cast of the Venus of Milo or the Faun of Praxiteles that is absolutely identical with the original except in material."

"But it is useless to try to teach art in the public schools. Some students can't draw."

"Are there no photographers in the city?" inquired the stranger.

"Yes, all the boys are crazy over it. But photography is not one of the fine arts."

"Why not?"

"Because—because it's modern."

Here the superintendent interposed to stop the useless discussion. "You do not understand our difficulties here. This is a sordid and commercial place and we can spend no time or money on the cultivation of the esthetic pleasures. We must be practical and prepare our students directly for life."

"Yes, I see. An excellent aim. What do your young men do for a living?"

"Oh, some of them work in shops, some in mines, some on ranches."

"You teach them to do all these things?"

"No, I have thought of introducing a course in manual training, but we have not the facilities. Besides, some think it is a fad. There is nothing the American public hates so much as a fad."

"Then, I suppose, you give the fundamental principles of me-

chanics, agriculture and mining, so they see the higher aspects and deeper meaning of their life work?"

"No, we can't do that. They pick up what they can in the shops or on the railroad or elsewhere. Many take lessons by correspondence from a man in Pennsylvania. The railroad sends out an instruction car sometimes. The sugar factory educates farmers in the art of raising beets."

"It seems, then, that this important part of the educational work is being taken out of the public schools. The utilitarians do not seem to be forcing you to be practical as rapidly as might be expected from what you said. What occupations do you prepare for specifically?"

"We teach bookkeeping, typewriting and shorthand. These studies prepare for clerkships and commercial positions."

"I suppose, then, these are the occupations which are least crowded, best paid and most useful."

"Not exactly. A competent mechanic earns more than a bookkeeper or a professor or an ordinary lawyer and is doubtless as useful."

"Your best students then want to become mechanics or farmers or miners?"

"No, indeed. Men in these occupations are rather looked down upon."

"Why so?"

"Because they are generally uneducated."

"So you do not educate for these professions because they are despised and they are despised because they are not learned professions. I cannot talk of this longer. It makes my head whirl. But your young women, what do they do for a life work?"

"Oh, most of them become housewives and spend their time cooking and cleaning."

"And what do they prefer to study in school?"

"They take mostly to such courses as music, Dante, Early English and the Art of Fiction."

The stranger looked as though he were about to question the necessity of all these subjects in feminine education, but instead he asked, "What science?"

"If they take any science it is usually astronomy or botany."

"Do you consider that the best training for those who are to make chemistry their life work?"

"Chemistry? They never have anything to do with chemistry! None of the girls go into drug stores."

"Oh, I misunderstood you. I understood you to say that cooking and cleaning were the chief occupations of most of them, and I thought it would make these tasks lighter if not pleasanter to learn something of the science of these chemical arts. But I must leave now. I have so many things to think about. I had heard that American schools were interesting, but I never suspected *how* interesting, how curious, they really were. Thank you and good-bye."

THE TEACHING OF MILITARY HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS

By Arthur C. Howland
University of Pennsylvania

The problem that seems at present to be attracting most attention from history teachers is that of delimiting the field and eliminating unnecessary material so as to make our teaching effective. Not all the past is worth while and much even of what is valuable must be sacrificed because of limited time for history in any well-considered curriculum. The question is, then, what shall we retain in our history teaching and what emphasis shall we lay on the various aspects of the subject. The particular point for discussion this evening is, shall we eliminate military history and the study of War from our regular courses, and if so, why?

No one would deny that too large a space has sometimes been devoted in the older textbooks to the story of wars and I should be the last to deny the charge that military history can be over-emphasized or that modern conceptions and modern ideas of emphasis should be subordinated to what has so often been spoken of as drum and trumpet history. Nor would I claim that any method of presenting military history is better than none. A dry mass of facts regarding the size of contending armies, the names of commanders, the mere numbers of killed and wounded on each side are not matters of large importance in history; but the entire exclusion of a subject that occupied so large a place in the thoughts and activities of the past as war has done requires to be justified by reasons of weight and importance.

It would be difficult to find any two persons agreeing in detail as to why we study history and the exact objects we should have in view in teaching it. But the view sometimes expressed that we can teach morals and good citizenship directly by means of our subject has been given up by most history teachers and finds its advocates chiefly among educators who have not tried it. It would be a fine thing if the examples of history indeed proved that moral and social virtues were always rewarded and their opposites punished, but this view can hardly be justified unless our judgment of what is good and bad is determined by success or failure. Therefore a

possible objection to military history, on the ground that it is contrary to the best spirit of the time and tends to encourage a militaristic attitude of mind in the rising generation, is not likely to be seriously urged. One might as well claim that the career of Napoleon should be passed over in silence because his character does not afford an edifying moral example, as to neglect a study of his wars because they would stimulate the military enthusiasm of the students.

If we do not look upon history, then, as a vehicle for moral instruction, what is its purpose? If that question were capable of a single answer our pedagogical problem would be rendered extremely simple. But the fact is that we study history for a great variety of reasons. We do so to understand the present; but we do so also to understand the past without any reference to the present—that is, to satisfy our curiosity and to learn if possible, how our ancestors lived and how they felt and acted.

If we wish to understand some of the important aspects of the present we cannot neglect the influence of wars. A simple example of this is the subject of national boundaries whose limits to-day in numberless instances have been determined by the wars of the past; or that of the extent and character of colonial possessions due to the same cause. The unity of Germany itself is a result of war. It might be said that we do enough for the student if we mention the fact of the war and enumerate its results; but aside from the likelihood of such a procedure's being rather dry, a healthy curiosity may well demand to know how the results were brought about. To understand the past for itself, to cultivate an historical imagination, requires that we comprehend the conditions of life under which the men of the past lived, and war has been epidemic in Europe for unnumbered generations. War or the fear of it must have been constantly in the minds of our ancestors. When our entire class of the population owed its existence to the fact that it was a professional fighting class, and when another and much larger class, the peasants and townsmen, were the chief victims of their fighting we cannot understand the psychology of the men of that day nor comprehend their ways of thinking and acting unless we study not only their wars but the methods by which they were carried on. Much even of constitutional history owes its peculiar character to the military history of the time; and while, for instance, the development of the English government in the time of Edward the Third

and the Lancastrians has comparatively little to do with the way the campaigns of the Hundred Years War were actually conducted, the same cannot be said regarding the development of the French constitution. How can we explain the failure to develop constitutional checks to monarchy in France and the country's acquiescence in absolutism without studying the campaigns and plunderings of the English armies, their superiority in arms to the French and the ravages of the Free Companies, and thus realize what all these things meant to the people? To understand how people have acted in the past and how they act to-day something more than the economic interpretation of history is necessary. There is a psychological as well as an economic explanation. The present industrial and political position of Germany is due not alone to the breaking down of previous economic barriers within the country but also to the enthusiasm and self-confidence engendered by the victories of 1870. The brief commercial supremacy of Holland in the commercial world owed much to the spirit evoked by her long struggle with Spain. So, too, the present situation and attitude of Japan is in part a psychological result of her victories over Russia. Such facts would be largely meaningless to us unless we understood the conditions under which these struggles were waged, and comprehended the varying fortunes of a campaign as well as we are able to comprehend them.

We understand these things because we have worked through them or lived through them and we get impatient at the necessity of dwelling on such points as military history, when there are so many other important things that need to be emphasized. But we do not always remember the processes by which we have attained our present understanding. We have forgotten what we have forgotten, the learning of which, however, at one time was necessary for the development of our present comprehension of history. What might be called a subsidiary result of paying some attention to military history is the geographical knowledge it compels the student to acquire. The necessity of correlating the physical geography of a country with its history needs no discussion. And yet all the examinations, whether in high school or college, show that the majority of students do not possess a knowledge of geography. In college entrance examinations, there is no question the examiner is more certain of finding omitted or inadequately answered than

the one on geography. The student does not carry in his mind a picture of the country with its leading physical features and the location of its chief centers of population. The study of the strategy of a few typical campaigns brings to light the importance of rivers, mountains and cities, of the chief lines of communication and intercourse, as nothing else will. Scarcely an important feature of the land but can be shown to have had its significance in military operations. A brief study of the campaigns of Ulm and Austerlitz with the help of a good map will, for example, disclose the whole geography of Southern Germany and the Tyrol in a way to fix it indelibly on the mind of the student provided he once grasps the strategy of the operations.

The immensity of the field of history undoubtedly requires us to eliminate many things of more or less importance, but this very necessity indicates that one of the great purposes of the teacher must be to stimulate an interest in the subject and make it one that the student will turn to afterward and pursue for himself. The teacher who makes the reading of history a favorite occupation of the student in after life has attained a great result. It does not seem wise, therefore, to neglect altogether those phases of the subject which are of greatest interest to the pupil at certain phases of his development, for we may never get hold of him again. Military history does appeal, and appeal strongly, to the vast number of students. It satisfies a craving for action in history. Man is after all a fighting animal, and it is only a natural curiosity that demands to know the way in which this instinct expressed itself in the past. The natural stages in historical curiosity seem to be first a desire to know the personal and biographical. Then the dramatic element fixes the attention and stimulates a craving for fuller knowledge. It is at this stage that military history makes an especial appeal. It is only later that we develop a curiosity about institutions and intellectual movements and even then our earlier interest in action and dramatic movement is not entirely lost. If we leave our military history altogether we are neglecting one of the chief means of interesting the student in history and of stimulating his imagination, while at the same time we are failing to give him all the factors whereby to understand the past and interpret the present. If the study of war can be safely eliminated from history, why cannot the news of war be equally well eliminated from our daily newspapers?

SHOULD MILITARY HISTORY BE TAUGHT IN OUR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES?

By Samuel Burnett Howe

South Side High School, Newark, N. J.

I wish to limit myself to the question, "Should military history be taught in our schools?" Were I to attempt to discuss the question from the college standpoint I would at once discover in my own mind the confusion apparent in the answer of a Newark High School student, who, on a recent examination paper stated that "Achilles was a Greek hero. When he was a baby his mother held him by the ankle and plunged him in the river 'Stinks,' until he was "intolerable'."

In considering, then, the school phase of the question, several methods of attack present themselves which may be formulated somewhat as follows: First, Is military history taught in our schools? Second, If so, why is it taught? Third, What are the results of this teaching? Fourth, What objections are there to this study? Fifth, What material is suggested to take its place? Many other questions may commend themselves to you, but suppose we limit ourselves to these five, in order that we may not become like the Englishman in the following gem which I actually found in London Punch. First Englishman: "Yes, old top, you see my wife wasn't feelin' extraordinarily fit, don't you know, so she has gone on a vacation to the West Indies."

Second Englishman: "Really, Jamaica?"

First Englishman: "O no, not at all, it was her own idea, don't you know."

Is military history treated in our school courses? That is, military history for its own sake? I took down some of our best selling elementary school text-books on American history and found in one book that one quarter of the text dealt with military history, one hundred pages out of four hundred odd, and in another, eighty-four out of four hundred and thirty pages. At the same time the social and economic side of national development was

either ignored, or else hurried over in the form of summary altogether beyond the mind of the child of the seventh or eighth school year. Indeed, when reading one of these summaries, I was filled with admiration at the skill of the authors of the book to condense so much information in such tabloid form, until I pulled myself up with a quick stop and realized that it would be all Greek to the child. That so much space in representative text-books deals with battles and leaders, the blare of bugle, the roar of artillery, the requiem for the dead,—that a quarter of the actual text material offered for elementary study of history relates to warfare, is a significant response to our first question, in so far as it relates to the ten thousands of elementary school children. How then of the thousands in the secondary schools? I believe from what I have seen from this phase of the work that the leaven is working strongly in our high schools. The recent books on American history, for use as high school texts, are better adapted to the students' capacities. There is less and less of a disposition to attempt to write down to the author's conception of the adolescent mind, and more of an attempt to use a simple but mature style. Authors also are frank in condensing the periods of wars. On the whole, however, averaging the elementary and secondary instruction, it must be admitted that more than a month of the school year, and more than one-eighth of the material treated in our history classes is purely military.

Why, then, is history of warfare taught? All peoples in their beginnings as nations lived by warfare, and for warfare. To them life was one warfare after another. It is not strange that the father of history was concerned more with the history of the Persian wars than with any other phase of the life of his people. It is true that he also gives us delightful glimpses into the other activities of the nations at war, but admittedly he was writing of history as a record of wars. So, also, through the pages of his successors runs this scarlet thread. "Happy is the people which hath no history," expresses this conviction of all the importance of the military story. The child lives again the life story of his race, and is easily interested in strife and conflict, because he too is a primitive man warring with his neighbors on mimic battlefields. Through the picturesque and the adventurous portals of military history lies the road of least resistance in instruction. Even in the history of our own nation, the ripest development of human institutions, war has played an

important part. There is many a Nicholas Chauvin to-day in this country, who would not allow us, if we desired to do so, to forget the glorious annals of our military achievements on land and sea. How few of us did not feel a guilty jingo thrill last week at the martialing of our mighty engines of destruction at Vera Cruz? How difficult the path of that historian and statesman in Washington, whom we all respect, even if we differ with him in his policies, because of a streak of savagery in this our own beloved nation?

Our writers of history, no matter how much they may deprecate war, have felt constrained to enlarge to a greater or less degree upon those aspects of our nation's story, which treat of campaigns from Quebec to Santiago. Even my esteemed friend, the previous speaker, must admit that he too gave more space in his treatise on Modern Europe to the influence of the war god than he in his own heart would have given, if he had not felt this constraint. If, then, our most successful writers of works for the study of history frankly admit by their writings that military history still retains a certain and no mean place in our school courses, what wonder is it that our teachers, most of them following falteringly in the footsteps of the writers of these texts, yield to this still potent fetich of historical study?

I admit at this point that I am putting myself outside the pale of what has been the evaluation of essentials of history, but this brings me to the third question. What are the results of this teaching? Either war is a good thing, or it is a curse. Either war is needed to renew an anæmic condition of the nation's blood, or else it is a plague, compared to which the Black Death, Yellow Jack, the White Plague, and all the other countless ills combined to which flesh is heir, are but a nettlerash. Thank God, mankind is coming to a realization of the meaning of war. From General Sherman's dictum, to the great swelling tide of the movement for world peace of to-day, the race has seen a greater development than from the days of the Sea-kings of Crete, to the Slavery-kings of the South.

In this era of progress war is becoming more and more of an anachronism, and yet we go on holding up before our students the ideal of a glorified pirate or bandit or murderer, as the highest type of a national hero. I know many will take exception to this sweeping condemnation, but let us be honest, let us reason together.

How many school boys, trained by most up-to-date teachers, would fail to include in a list of America's great men, those famous solely, or at least pre-eminently, because of military exploits? Perhaps this is as it should be, but I sincerely question it. Let me cite one instance. In treating the Civil War epoch, for treat it we must, how many students realize which was the greater man, Lee or Davis? Are you sure you can answer this question off-hand? The old order changeth, but the mills of the gods grind slowly. I believe that the leaven is working in our high schools, but what of the elementary school instruction? What of the tens of thousands of boys and girls who go forth into life, to mate and bring up the coming generation of citizens without this leaven? The answer is apparent in the streets to-day, in the expression of the rule of force, in Colorado, in our Congress, in the whole social structure of this and other nations.

What are the objections to stirring the patriotism (sic) of the young, by a recountal of the nation's struggles on the martial field against illiberal government and economic foes? None, if they are presented in the right way, but the fact remains that we have yet to find that way, and that the patriotism thus far evolved falls far short of true patriotism. We see our own country, already sufficiently distracted by grievous economic wrongs, by the evidence of political corruption in high places, by race deteriorating social inequalities and evils, pouring out enormous sums for the maintenance of huge military and naval establishments, and engaging upon quests of parental jurisdiction over weaker powers. We see Europe, an armed camp, exploiting the bodies of men for the perpetuation of this anachronistic fetish, War. All these phenonmena in an age which boasts itself as enlightened and humanitarian, prove abundantly that as far as history is concerned with the moulding of popular thought that she has much to answer for.

In the earlier stages of our history war did play an important rôle, although not as important a rôle as our historians would make us believe. But let us recognize that conditions have changed, that with time customs have altered, and that we must displace military detail with something more vital to the needs of the modern world. By the elimination of a consideration of wars, we gain immeasurably; in the viewpoint of our work; in the time devoted to more important phases of social science in our schools. Take the matter of the

syllabus for history in secondary schools alone. The able report of the Committee of Seven, which has for so long been the shibboleth of high school teachers, outlined four years' work in social science. This outline is beautifully constructed, chronologically arranged, replete with helpful suggestions, yet we search in vain for a unit of economics or of civics. These simply did not belong. The able historians who framed this syllabus, trained in the school of history as it is taught, could admit of no condensation of the field of history beyond the four units there laid down. Why? I will set up no straw-man of college concepts concerning history. The colleges are ready to listen to the secondary schools. I am not tilting against their requirements, absurd as they may seem to many a hard tried teacher in the high school; for the secondary school men have seen a great light. It is one thing to prepare for college, and another thing to prepare for life, as the overwhelming proportion of our high school students must be prepared. That a college education is a blessing is widely accepted, but at best it is but a theory, and we are up against the condition that this blessing is not the lot of 80 per cent. of our secondary school students, take them as a whole.

If, then, but a small proportion of the boys and girls, exposed to education, take the college fever, the secondary courses in social science must be remoulded so that the former poor relation of history,—civics, and the former client of the patrician Committee of Seven,—economics, may obtain an honorable and equal footing as peers. An impetus to this movement of reorganization was given by the report of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association, for which we may give great credit to Dr. Robinson, and the effects of this push forward in the right direction are evident in the report of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, published in Bulletin 41 of the United States Bureau of Education.

At the present time, in New York State and New Jersey, a revaluation of history content is being prepared for state syllabi, while the same propaganda are being presented to-day and to-morrow at Boston at the Spring meeting of the New England Association of History Teachers. In order to answer the growing question, "How are you educating our boys and girls in the high schools?" is it not wise to say that, in so far as history and its kindred branches are concerned, military history must be reduced to a minimum, if not

entirely eliminated, and in its place must be given coördinate courses in economics and civics. The older historians would admit of no condensation of the field of history. Why? Because they insisted on an irreducible minimum of military history. Granting their position concerning military history, their arguments were unanswerable. But I trust that I have shown, even if superficially, that purely military history must go. The time saved may be devoted to a consideration of the economic and social phases of national development in the very units thus far widely accepted, or, the older units having been condensed into two or three units instead of four, additional units may be provided in economics and civics.

In conclusion may I quote from one who has made much American history, in order that I may not be accused of being too prone to emphasize the economic interpretation of history?

"Those who wish history to be treated as a purely utilitarian science often decry the recital of the mighty deeds of the past, the deeds which have always aroused, and for a long period to come are likely to arouse most interest. Beyond all question the great historian must keep in mind the relative importance of the usual and the unusual. It is hard to know what it is that is most important to know. The wisdom of one generation may seem the folly of the next. A utilitarian education should undoubtedly be the foundation of all education. But it is far from wise to have it the end of all education. Technical training will more and more be accepted as the prime factor in our educational system. For similar reasons the purely practical and technical lessons of history, the lessons that help us to grapple with our immediate social and industrial problems, will also receive greater emphasis than ever before. Side by side with the need for the perfection of the individual in the technique of his special calling goes the need of broad human sympathy, and the need of lofty and generous emotion in that individual. Only thus can the citizenship of the modern state rise level to the complex modern social needs."

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF LOCAL HISTORY

By John Holladay Latané

Johns Hopkins University

I shall not undertake to demonstrate to this audience the fundamental proposition that local history has a value, and that therefore in the study of local history scientific methods of research should be employed. I shall assume that you will admit so self-evident a proposition. The task which I have essayed is rather that of discussing what problems of local history are worth investigating and what are not, for not all past events possess a historic significance or value. It is certainly one of the chief functions of the historian to separate the essential from the non-essential. In other words, it is highly important, especially in the local field, to distinguish between history and mere antiquarianism. A great many persons confuse the two. In fact, some persons appear to believe that the further removed a fact is from any possible connection with the present the greater must be its historical value. Now, that is not my view of history.

It is not the dead past, but the living past in which we should be interested. We do not study the lives of Alexander, of Cæsar, of Napoleon, of Washington, or of Jefferson because they are dead and have passed away, but because they are living, vitalizing forces in the world to-day, because their influence still endures and quickens. And so it is with Hebrew religion, with Greek culture, with Roman law; we study them because they have moulded our civilization and are still moulding it. Professor Robinson tells us that Rome never fell, and in a sense this is true, for all that was best in the life of Rome, transformed and transfused, lives on to-day and is felt in the great throbbing heart-beats of humanity.

John Morley says: "I do not in the least want to know what happened in the past, except as it enables me to see my way more clearly through what is happening to-day." And Seeley says: "It is a favorite maxim of mine that history, while it should be scientific in its method, should pursue a practical object—that is, it should

not only gratify the reader's curiosity about the past, but modify his view of the present and his forecast of the future."

In the study of local history, therefore, such a task as that of determining the location of the town pump in the days of our grandfathers, while it may gratify the curiosity of some persons, can be of no appreciable historical value. The same may be said of the more dignified and formidable inquiry as to which side of Watling Island Columbus landed on—the subject of a learned but inconclusive dissertation some years ago.

Some teachers, it is true, justify such inquiries by the plausible statement that they require the same methods of investigation and the use of the same source material as studies that are fruitful of more practical results,—in other words that such questions afford just as good training as any others. This contention is, I suppose, based on the assumption that the study of history is a mental discipline, and so it is, but there are other studies that afford better mental discipline and the main value of historical study is not to be found in mental gymnastics.

There are two obvious objections to the pursuit of purely trivial historical inquiries. The first is that when there are so many fruitful fields of research still unexplored such investigations as the above are an unpardonable misdirection of effort and an inexcusable waste of time. The teacher who in any community cannot direct his students to a profitable line of inquiry shows a woeful lack of enterprise and initiative. The second objection is that one of the main objects of the study and teaching of history is to give perspective—to cultivate the ability to discriminate between the essential and the non-essential. The investigation of trivial and non-essential facts tends to destroy rather than to develop the historical faculty,—that sanity and balance of judgment which it is the object of historical training to cultivate.

Local history is largely a relative term when we consider the various subdivisions of world history: European, Asiatic, or American history, national history, sectional history (or, as the word sectional has unfortunate associations in this country, we may adopt the terminology of the recent Currency Act and call it regional history), state history, county and town history. There may even be added the history of battlefields, of forts, and of historic spots. Fort Ticonderoga is now being restored in accordance with the

original plans and drawings at great expense. This spot has a history of surpassing interest, and its restoration will render very vivid the great events associated with it.

American history has been studied too much from the point of view of the debates of Congress, state papers, and presidential campaigns. Far too little attention has been paid to state and local history, or to economic questions which are, as a general thing, either local in their bearing or are regarded from the standpoint of local interest. Many of the generalizations of our historians are derived from contemporary material of a controversial nature rather than deduced from a wide study of local conditions. It is much easier, of course, for a historian to accept the statement found in the political speech of a contemporary as to the effect of a given governmental policy than to investigate the facts in different localities and draw his own conclusions. The same tendency is seen in the assignment of motives to men. Thus the charge was made against Stephen A. Douglas by his contemporaries that his Kansas-Nebraska bill was a direct bid for the Democratic nomination for the presidency. And yet the view has been recently advanced that the move was made in behalf of the big business interests of Chicago which had no special interest in slavery. His object, it is alleged, was to hasten the settlement of the Platte country so as to strengthen the demand for a railroad from Chicago to the Pacific as against the plan of Jefferson Davis and President Pierce to build the road to the Pacific through Louisiana and Texas.

Other interesting modifications of national history as hitherto interpreted have been brought about by the study of state sectionalism or the local distribution of party votes within a state. The tariff was defined some years ago by one of our political leaders as a local issue, and this statement is largely true. Witness, for example, the sugar interests of Louisiana. Why did Daniel Webster oppose the tariff of 1824 and support that of 1828? The explanation is that the shipping and commercial interests in his district in 1824 were greater than the manufacturing interests and favored free trade. By 1828 the situation had become reversed and the manufacturing interests outweighed the shipping interests.

Why was it that the states formed out of the northwest territory remained almost solidly Democratic down to 1856? Rarely did this region fail to cast its electoral votes for the Democratic

candidate, and this only when western men were running. Clay carried Ohio in 1824 and in 1844, and Harrison carried Ohio and Indiana in 1836, and Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan in 1840. As late as 1848 and 1852, however, every electoral vote in this region was Democratic. It has commonly been said that this was due to the fact that the population was at first largely of southern origin, but this was by no means the sole explanation. A study of local economic conditions shows that the settlers in this region had no outlet save the Mississippi River. They shipped large quantities of pork, bacon, lard, beef, butter, cheese, corn, flour, and whiskey down the river and sold them to the cotton and sugar planters. The prosperity of the Northwest no less than that of the South was based on cotton and slavery, and with the rapid advance of the cotton belt came the rapid development of the Ohio and the upper Mississippi valleys. With the development of the lake traffic through the Erie Canal and the building of the Pennsylvania Railroad this section was no longer dependent upon the southern market, and with the establishment of new lines of commerce came new political affiliations. As long as the West was dependent on the southern market it remained Democratic. When it came to rely more on the eastern market it became Republican. Such facts as these illustrate the great importance of a thorough study of local economic conditions, about which, as yet, notwithstanding the volumes that have been written on American history, we know comparatively little.

Take again by way of illustration the great slavery issue. In spite of what has been written on the political and moral aspects of this question, we still know very little of the economics of slavery, and slavery both in its origin and development was essentially an economic problem. We shall never understand that question aright until we make a thoroughly scientific study of the system in a local way, with the plantation as a basis. I mean the kind of work that is now being done by Professor Phillips of the University of Michigan, who has edited two volumes of Plantation and Frontier Documents and in his introduction has given us a most illuminating account of the plantation system. The same thing is illustrated in the history of reconstruction. It is a comparatively simple task to write the history of reconstruction from the national or congressional point of view. The reasons why the presidential plan was discarded and just how the reconstruction acts came to be passed

are now well known, but to study reconstruction from the southern standpoint is quite a different thing. Local studies of the practical workings of reconstruction have been undertaken by students of Columbia, Johns Hopkins, and other universities, and this sort of work will have to be completed for the entire South before the general historian can deal with that period of American history successfully.

The scientific study of local institutions and of local history in this country was first inaugurated by Herbert B. Adams at the Johns Hopkins University. The publication of the Studies in Historical and Political Science was begun in 1883, and marked the beginning of an epoch in American historiography. Thirty-two volumes of that series have so far been issued, and the monographs printed in them cover all the important fields of local research, including local institutions of town, county and state (forty or fifty monographs), studies in the history of municipal government (the first work of this kind in America was done by H. B. Adams's students), local studies of church and state, state histories of education (this series was continued by the United States Bureau of Education under the editorship of Professor Adams), state histories of white servitude, of slavery, and of the free negro, studies in state banking, in financial history, and in local and state taxation. In fact, there is scarcely a field of local research that was not entered under Adams's leadership and inspiration. These studies have afforded material for more general works, and have trained hundreds of students in the most approved scientific methods of historical investigation.

The local monograph was Adams's contribution to historical writing in America, and the larger universities have all profited by his successful experience and followed the example that he set. The monographic method still affords the most fruitful line of student research. A student must master some topic of a more or less restricted nature and exhaust the source material relating to it before he can acquire the training and method that will fit him to undertake research on a larger scale.

Dr. Adams used to say that history, like charity, should begin at home. General history should follow and not precede local history. We have reference here to the writing of history, not to the study of history. Most of our earlier general histories

contained broad assumptions that could not be substantiated, partisan views derived from the political declarations of prejudiced contemporaries, and general conclusions based on isolated or wholly exceptional data. The reason was that the local material had not been thoroughly organized and made available. This work is now being carried on with most encouraging results. American history is now being reconstructed from the ground up. It will be rewritten on broader foundations by the generation which has already set itself to the task. In this reconstruction the economic interpretation of history will figure largely, and the economic interpretation of history requires a minute study of local economic conditions. I should say that the two things that the general historian feels the need of most keenly to-day are, first, a series of local studies in economic history, and, second, a series of first-class political biographies of second-class men—men who played an important part in their day and generation, but who failed to become political stars of the first magnitude and have now sunk below the horizon.

In England the life of every man who attains a certain degree of political prominence is perpetuated in a standard biography, usually written twenty or thirty years after his death by some competent person selected by the family and placed in possession of his papers and correspondence. In this country we have no such fixed practice. Our biographies, as a rule, bear little relation in size to the importance of the deceased. Some are inordinately long; some are prompted solely by filial affection and written for purposes of concealment or of vindication; while others are written immediately after the funeral obsequies without access to private papers, and smack of the obituary notices in the local press. Very few give the facts that the historian needs most.

Finally, local history should always be written from the point of view of universal history. The writer of local history must clearly discern the meaning of what he is doing, or it will be of little value. The currents of local history should flow into the greater channel of national history and ultimately of world history.

TOPICS OF STATE-WIDE INTEREST WHICH ARE FRUITFUL FOR RESEARCH

By P. Orman Ray
Trinity College

If one were asked to state in a word the most distinctive characteristic of historical writing in the United States during the last two decades, the reply would doubtless be the exploitation of the history of the West. Historical explorers, prospectors and squatters have discovered so many Comstock lodes and bonanza wheat farms, yielding the richest historical returns, that "the lure of the West" has been well-nigh irresistible to young historical investigators. Graduate students at Eastern institutions of learning have often cast longing eyes toward this Eldorado, and not infrequently have we seen them trekking to some Western university in order to have a larger share in the development of this new historical continent. As we have seen American millionaires bearing home the costliest treasures from European art collections, so we may see the representatives of at least one great Eastern university striving to bring back from the West historical materials for the equipment of a great laboratory for the scientific study of Western history here in the East. Seemingly, almost every nook and cranny of Western history either has been or is being pried into by some eager prospector "ready to pre-empt and to stake off what appear to be the most promising" monographic claims. Indeed, one may well doubt whether any other field of American history is at the present time being so systematically and minutely surveyed.

Far be it from the purpose of the writer of this paper to deplore or to disparage "this westward movement" of souls in eager quest of historical materials, for he, too, has found the lure of the West irresistible. Vast has been the enrichment of our historical literature, and invaluable has been the correction of our historical perspective, resulting from this development of the West as a field for historical study. Some of us, however, have begun to wonder if a reaction is not about due; if, in place of this

Westward movement of the historically inclined, we may not soon be witnesses of, and possibly participants in, a back-to-the-East movement. True it is that few, if any, virgin forests or wide expanses of historical prairies or mines of fabulous richness await exploitation here in the East. But it is quite possible that a more scientific and intensive cultivation of some of the older areas of historical research, a re-occupation of some of the "abandoned farms" of history, and a more thorough and purposeful rummaging in old historical garrets and lumber-rooms, may yield surprisingly rich returns.

On account of these reflections, and especially because this is a gathering of history teachers who, for the greater part of each year, are moored and anchored at Eastern institutions, I have decided to restrict this paper to the consideration of topics which are susceptible of development in connection with the history of the older Eastern states. For all of the topics to be mentioned, I am not certain that sufficient materials are available to make possible a satisfactory monographic treatment. Many subjects could, I suspect, be presented in the small compass of a periodical article more effectively than if expanded into the dimensions of a book. Most of us busy teachers who gladly rise up and call blessed the author of a new historical book are ready to call thrice blessed the author who can compress his book into a periodical article. Two promising fields for productive historical work here in the East lie in the twilight zone or borderland of history and political science. One field includes our municipal governments, the other our state governments. In the first the greatest needs are for carefully prepared histories of the legal and political relations existing at different periods between state and municipal government; for histories dealing with the causes of, and steps in, the decline of city councils and the rise of the mayoralty; for a history of the spoils system in connection with the municipal governments of our several commonwealths; for a history of the development of municipal functions and services in a given state; and finally for a historical study of political primaries in cities that exert a state-wide influence, like New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Baltimore.*

* See F. W. Dallinger, "Nominations for Elective Offices in the United States" (1897).

In connection with our state governments, we need in each state a history of the various attempts to amend the state Constitution. Such contributions would be especially welcome in states which are now seriously considering a revision of their Constitutions. The expansion of gubernatorial functions and influences, the development of the speakership and committee system in state legislatures, the rise and decline of state legislatures in popular esteem, the increase in the number of state offices, the different methods of filling such offices,† a history of the spoils system in connection with state governments, the development of county governments in a given state, each of these subjects is deserving of a careful historical survey. An examination of the official *proceedings* of the various state constitutional conventions will readily serve to suggest other worthy topics in the same field. Articles or monographs dealing with removals, or attempted removals, from office in the several states,‡ and with the history of state legislation which has been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, would be useful in connection with present-day political discussions. Beginning with the colonial period in some of the older states where the records are most complete, a study of the statutory and judicial definitions of crimes and of the methods prescribed for their punishment, would be of interest. A history of the pardoning power in each state may also be recommended.

The State of Vermont has had three constitutions, and all three contain provisions which are strikingly similar to, and in some instances duplicates of, provisions in the Pennsylvania Constitution of 1776. A complete and satisfactory explanation of these resemblances has not, so far as I am aware, been published. I desire to call special attention to two institutions provided for in the Vermont constitutions: One is the executive council associated with the governor, and plainly modeled upon the early executive council in Pennsylvania; the other is the provision for a Council of Censors, which was obviously a copy of the Pennsylvania institution of the same name. I would especially recommend a careful study of the history of these two institutions in Vermont, par-

† For example, "Why the Office of State Treasurer Became Elective in Pennsylvania."

‡ See Roger Foster's "Commentaries on the Constitution," 633 ff.

ticularly the history of the Council of Censors, which was not abolished until 1870, eighty years after the disappearance of its prototype in Pennsylvania. Incidentally, may I express the conviction that something remains to be done in narrating the complete history of the Pennsylvania Council of Censors?

For fourteen years, from 1777 to 1791, Vermont came perhaps the nearest of any state in the Union to being literally an independent and sovereign state. A subject of research of the first importance is to be found in the constitutional and political history of the Green Mountain State in those years, including her contest for admission into the Union and her simultaneous flirtation with the English government. It is quite possible that the Canadian and English archives may contain pertinent material hitherto unused.

Entering the field of political history, we find a large number of subjects of state-wide interest awaiting the historical investigator. A new chapter in the history of elections to the United States Senate has just opened, and it is an appropriate time to commence the history of the chapter which has just closed. Accordingly, I suggest a series of articles on the history of senatorial elections in the several states. Among other subjects which seem deserving of fuller treatment than they have received, the following may be mentioned: Politics in Connecticut and in Massachusetts from about 1750 to the outbreak of hostilities with England; a history of southwestern Pennsylvania in the Revolutionary period, with special reference to the Hannastown "Declaration of Independence"; * Pennsylvania's numerous boundary controversies and their settlement; the dispute between Pennsylvania and Connecticut settlers in the Wyoming Valley, especially the details of the final adjustment of the controversy; the Whiskey Insurrection; the work of different state delegations in the Continental Congresses; also a similar study of the work of each state congressional delegation during the Civil War; and I would add, the early influence of Masonic lodges upon local and state politics, provided one can gain access to Masonic archives.

A careful study of the attitude of the people and officials of

* Mr. W. B. Furst, a graduate student at Yale University, is now, I understand, at work on this subject, particularly the Hannastown "Declaration of Independence."

New Hampshire, Vermont and northern New York toward the War of 1812 is needed; and an investigation of political and economic conditions in Pennsylvania during the same period might also be profitable. The early development of the nominating convention has been traced for Pennsylvania,* but similar studies for other states will be welcomed by students of politics. In the attitude of the various geographic sections and economic interests in Pennsylvania toward Andrew Jackson's "war" upon the Second Bank of the United States, we have, I believe, another topic of state-wide interest fruitful for research. The study of state politics during the Civil War presents another noteworthy field for research. We now have monographs dealing with the politics of New York and Ohio in this period,† and similar studies for Pennsylvania are now in progress at the University of Pennsylvania and at Columbia University. It is hoped that these investigations are the mere prelude to the early publication of a series of monographs dealing with war-time politics in other states.

Another series of political investigations may well go back of the outbreak of the Civil War. We need, for example, careful historical surveys of party politics in each state between 1850 and 1860, which shall give us approximately correct appraisals of the relative effect upon state and national politics of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the prohibitory liquor law agitation, the Kansas troubles, and the Dred Scott decision. In this connection I would commend an investigation of the beginnings of the Republican party in Pennsylvania, and also the history of party politics in that state from 1860 to about 1876. Concerning the Tweed Ring in New York City much has been written, but a great deal more may yet be done to bring out fully and clearly the relations existing between the Ring and the "big business" interests of that day, as well as the connection of the Ring with the New York legislature, and the steps which brought about the complete overthrow of the Ring. An investigation along similar lines of the New York Canal Ring and its overthrow under Governor Tilden, as well as a history of the earlier Albany Regency and the more recent Louisiana Lottery,

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* J. S. Walton, "Nominating Conventions in Pennsylvania," in "Am. Hist. Rev.," II, 262.

† S. D. Brummer, "Political History of New York State During the Period of the Civil War" (1910); G. E. Porter, "Ohio Politics During the Civil War Period" (1911).

are worth while. It is also quite possible that the history of the anti-Blaine or Independent, *alias* Mugwump, faction between 1876 and 1884 may deserve special treatment.

To any who are especially interested in political biography I would recommend a *Life* of General Ira Allen, although much of his biography is interwoven with the history of Vermont as an Independent State, previously suggested; a study of George and DeWitt Clinton and of Thurlow Weed as factors in New York politics; of John P. Hale in New Hampshire politics; and of Simon Cameron and Benjamin F. Butler as factors in the politics of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, respectively; lastly, a study of the congressional career of Galusha A. Grow, a representative from Pennsylvania, and Justin S. Morrill and George F. Edmunds, long-time United States senators from Vermont.

In bringing this paper to a close I shall mention a last group of subjects taken from the field of social and economic history. The economic history of the Champlain Valley, with special reference to transportation, I would urge as being peculiarly deserving of monographic treatment. The political history of Reconstruction in the different states has been or is now being well covered, but comparatively little has been done toward writing the history of the educational and religious problems of that period. Teachers and students of history may also be urged to undertake the history of the colonial ship-building and whale-fishing industries in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, as well as the history of the trade of these colonies with the West Indies before the Revolution; the history of protective duties in colonial Pennsylvania; the history of smuggling in some of the more important maritime colonies, especially in the period just preceding the Declaration of Independence; a history of New York's attempts to regulate immigration between 1815 and 1860; a critical study of state banking between 1832 and 1862, and also of taxation in Pennsylvania and other states;* and the history of the localization of manufactures in a given state. Finally I would urge a careful tracing of the historical development in each state of methods of poor relief, † of labor disturbances,

* For additional topics related to Pennsylvania history, see the presidential address of Professor H. V. Ames, in "Acts and Proceedings" of the Pennsylvania Federation of Historical Societies (1913), p. 9 ff.

† E. W. Capen, "Historical Development of the Poor Law of Connecticut" (1905); W. C. Heffner, "History of Poor Relief Legislation in Pennsylvania, 1682-1913" (1913).

labor organizations and labor legislation, of liquor legislation, and of highway legislation and appropriations, including a study of judicial decisions relating to each of these topics.

Altogether, I have now mentioned over sixty topics or groups of topics which appear to be fruitful for research, and all of which may be developed in connection with the history of our older Eastern states; and this is only a tithe of the subjects discoverable in this section. Enough has been said, however, to indicate that even in "the old and effete East" the field of historical research is white already to harvest and the harvest truly is great. Happily we may add that the laborers are by no means few.

HISTORY IN THE COUNTRY CHURCH

By William H. Allison
Colgate Theological Seminary

As we journeyed yesterday along the railroad lines from our homes or as from time to time we have motored or in more ancient style have driven over our country highways, in many a distant vista we have caught sight of the white slender spire or the low square belfry which indicates a church building,—perhaps the first intimation that we are approaching a hamlet,—or does it stand in quiet isolation at some "four square" crossing of the roads? In the village or in the open country, what is more distinctive in our familiar eastern rural landscape than the simple, sometimes plain, but often picturesque country church? But for the fact that our general topic for this session is "The Value of Research in Local History," how easily we could fill in this part of the program with references to the historical significance of the fact that these humble buildings are not rare and unusual phenomena, that they are not confined to a limited portion of our national area, that they are not unknown even in the most newly settled regions, for they are as familiar in the West as in the East; that of all the buildings which in our still young land may make some claim to antiquity, none, more than do some of these, can carry us farther back into the very midst of the formative influences of American life. Still more is this true if we penetrate beyond the shell of the material structure into the living spirit of which the outward form is but an imperfect symbol. The prevalence of the country church is an historical testimony to the essentially religious character of the American people. There are those who think that religion is going down before the materialism of our present age; but in these extant edifices, we have the monuments,—built of materials, to be sure,—of a transcendent idealism, and religiously, we can quote confidently the familiar words of Webster, "The past at least is secure."

As we endeavor to confine ourselves to the general topic, we find in the latter a certain ambiguity. From the point of view of our

specific subject, there is a great temptation to trace out some of the effects upon the study and appreciation of the history of the local country church which have been produced by some of those great religious movements of the past which are better known to us to-day because of the painstaking scientific research which the historians of Europe, for example, have made. We can study the history of the little Free Baptist church in southeastern Massachusetts where the writer preached his first sermon (a merciful providence having previously afflicted a goodly portion of the congregation with deafness) unless he brings into that study a sense of reality created for him through his delving into the depths of the great Arminian controversy? The spade in Egypt is bound to affect the rural church in America if it has not already done so. The historical researches of Laurentius Valla may be said to lie back of the very existence of the majority of country churches in America. In spite of the fact of some segregation which may delay the application of scientific knowledge, the country church is not completely isolated from those general processes of historical evolution which in part proceed from our knowledge of the historical past.

The other sub-topics indicate, however, that it is with research in local history with which we are here concerned. What is to be our test of value? Is it to be one of historical availability, of historical use and historical satisfaction alone? While I wish to take a little of our time in presenting the service to history of the country church, I cannot confine myself to these limits. If it is possible to keep law and economics and sociology out of history and if they must be kept out in order to keep history completely scientific, well and good; it is not possible for me to keep history out of law and economics and sociology, for history is a beneficent science and its motto may be well said to be, "Ich dien." "If this be treason, make the most of it."

What is this country church before which we draw up our car or our carriage? It sits a little back from the road and as we leave the highway we enter upon land which is owned, we say, by the church. What is this body which holds the title to land and the other property attached thereto? Is the church itself incorporated? In the old-fashioned farming community off from the railroad, where each farm is owned by a single individual resident upon it,

there has been little contact with corporations; it seems almost the irony of fate that many a country boy has his first example of the "soulless" institution in the legal church body; yet here is one end of a trail which can be followed into the interesting realm of corporate organization, with its manifold ramifications, its law of fictitious personality, its legal and economic liability (shall we add?), its moral irresponsibility.

Off to one side we see, adjoining the church lot proper, the level greensward of the country burying-ground, and we say at once,—Yes, the church is close to all human interests. Here is a reminder of "the innumerable caravan;" the paths of all, whether of glory or of obscurity, lead but to the grave. To all two things are certain, death and taxes.

But hold,—our easy-going generalities which we pass off, coined into standard maxims which we trust will be acceptable currency of the realm, are turned back to us as counterfeit and ungenuine. The church, we are informed pays no taxes; its lands and buildings are exempt from the ordinary levies. To be sure this is true of the city church as well as of the country church, but there may be some advantage in working out the principles underlying the exemption from the history of the country church and from the analogies of the country life. A pamphlet just received from a forestry association points out that newly planted woodlands, though owned by an individual, are in most states exempt from taxation for a number of years,—in one state for thirty-five years. Is not a nursery of folks and of ideals full as much entitled to favor by the state as a nursery of pines and hard-woods? But historically, what has led to the exemption? Is it a survival of an earlier relationship of church and state? Or does the exemption rest upon merely economic grounds? The country church a few rods distant from the district school opens the way into one of the most fascinating of the larger questions of general history and the facts of history may be brought forward with no necessity of any formal or direct comparison of the merits of the conflicting theories of the relationship of church and state. How inevitably the historical investigation of the country church will lead us out into the field of general history, into law and political science and economics and sociology.

The architecture of the church building will not be entirely

without historical significance. While in some ways our church architecture in city and country has been artificial and imitative, what is it which has been imitated? Whither did the fathers turn for their ideas? Or did they merely use such ideas as they had at hand? What were the practical religious uses to which they wished to put the building when completed? What were the religious habits and the ecclesiastical customs of the people who built this church? Even the outside of the structure may reveal this to some extent, although in America we have not always been successful in our architectural symbolism. "That is God's house," said a mother to her small boy, in response to his question as they passed a somewhat ornate church edifice in a California town. "And what is this?" continued the boy as they approached another church, an ugly looking building on the next corner, "Is this God's barn?"

The inner furnishings of the country church will probably be more replete with historical suggestions than will the outside appearance,—the pulpit, the pews, the ornamentation or lack of it, the communion table, the altar, the altar rail, the reading desk, the organ; while still more will the service of worship itself, its varied character according to the practices of the folk who worship therein, carry us back into the differentiations of the earlier years of the Reformation and whether the church be Catholic or Protestant there will be some things which will carry us back into the primitive days of Christianity,—yes, and into the very heart of the Jewish religion itself. To him who attends with his historical sense quickened, while there may be in the American country church a jarring undertone of schism, there will be found also some of the harmonious notes of a true œcumenicity.

Yet the denominational status of the particular country church we are visiting may not be without real historical significance. Why is it Presbyterian, we will ask, instead of Methodist? Who are the people who founded it? From what part of the world did they come? Perhaps they were Scotch-Irish? What do we mean by that? There is no need of pressing this trail further nor of pointing out the innumerable similar trails which lead out from the country church into the most interesting spots of American and of European history. The movements of populations in the cities are generally more complex; the country church often affords an op-

portunity for the study of our peoples and the significance of their migrations and their locations that is far superior to the average opportunity furnished in the city.

Thus far we have been noticing chiefly how the country church may be serviceable in stimulating historical study; I wish now to turn to the possibility of the service to other activities of this historical interest thus aroused, and this will in the end bring us back to the further contribution to historical interest which the entire process produces.

One of the most important movements in modern times is that which is sometimes called the "rural uplift." In this movement the schools are already taking a significant part and it is evident that they will function in the new community development in a much more varied way in the future than in the past. This is true not only of the agricultural colleges, which have taken so much of the initiative in this movement, but as well it is true of the public schools and even of the professional schools. The theological seminaries, even those which are located in cities, are deeply concerned in all aspects of rural life.

One of the first phenomena with which one is confronted upon his entrance into the country life movement is the important place occupied by the "community survey." At any one of the numerous conferences held in recent years bearing upon country life, we have usually been brought up before a series of charts representing the results of investigations of the economic and social conditions to be found in a given state, county or smaller district. While sometimes the dynamic interpretation of sociology is emphasized by the charting of conditions observable at different points of time,—as for example a graphic representation of the population at succeeding decades, the increase or decrease in school attendance, etc.,—these charts present for the most part what may be called horizontal cross sections; their purpose is to present the situation as it actually exists. Perhaps in no particular have such horizontal surveys been more carefully and scientifically made than in connection with the rural church of America and out of these surveys has come an increasing conviction, even in the minds of many who had been inclined to think that the church was a relic of the past, that the church is in reality a factor in the life of the rural community. The man whose interest in the rural community is purely sociological must

take into account, as one sociological factor, the rural church. In few communities, however, does the present-day survey give us any real knowledge of the potential power of the country church unless, supplementing this kind of survey to which we have alluded, there shall be also what we may call a *vertical* survey, that is, a study of the way in which the conditions which do exist came to be. Historical investigation should accompany sociological surveys; in fact, if historical investigation preceded a sociological survey, the latter will probably be spared considerable wastefulness and be directed toward the most significant and most vital conditions of the community. Perhaps nowhere is this principle better illustrated than in the case of the country church, for in the past the latter has been a vital factor in the community development and many of the mysteries underlying the social conditions which we find in many a rural community will be at least partially solved if we can get into the secrets of the history of the local church. This is true not merely in connection with what we may call the personalities of community life, but as well in the varied activities which make up the sum total of the community development. The history of the local church in the country community is an index to the life of the community itself.

In his excellent address as President of the American Historical Association, Dr. J. Franklin Jameson pointed out the fact that a large amount of historical information is packed away in the biographies and journals of many obscure ministers who in the pioneer days were close to the beginnings of American institutions and community development—the "American Acta Sanctorum," he termed these writings. It is just as true that in many of the country churches scattered all about us we have some of the best trails leading us through all the mazes of our American political and social life. When the hound has struck the scent and follows it until it strikes into the water, he may give a cry of disappointment and the hunt is at an end; as we follow along our trails, however, and come to the Atlantic, we can often pick up the scent on the other side, and soon we are perhaps in the midst of the stirring movements of England or of the seventeenth century continental struggles, those seething currents out of which our modern civilization has come.

The most insignificant and obscure country church may lead

the man or woman who is historically open-minded into the very heart of the history of humanity.

A young man accepted the pastorate of a relatively obscure church on the Maine coast. The origin of the church was somewhat unusual; its original membership was made up largely of the members of a church of another order who followed the changed views of their former pastor. Practically it was the transfer of an entire church, lacking a few members, from one denomination to another. The centennial of the organization of the church in its new denominational status was approaching and some men would have used the opportunity merely to satisfy denominational pride. The pastor was a historian, however, and he soon began to find that the transfer in denominational relations was hardly more than an episode in the career of a man who, both before this transfer and afterward, probably was the most useful minister and citizen in the eastern portion of the province of Maine. He found among a lot of papers held by a descendant of this minister a record book which is probably that of the first society organized to support ministerial education as distinct from those to maintain schools or colleges. He found, upon following the trail still further from this little country church, that this same minister played a very active part in stimulating educational activities in both of the denominations with which he was successively affiliated. When the first effort to secure a charter for a Baptist college in Maine failed in the Massachusetts legislature, this minister runs himself for the House of Representatives, is elected, and by consummate wisdom applied in practical politics he succeeded in getting through a charter which soon after made possible what has become Colby College. When the new history of Brown University shall appear, in close connection with the celebration of its sesquicentennial, it will doubtless contain material which has been disclosed by following up a trail which struck off from a very small country church on the coast of Maine.

The possibilities of developing an interest in historical realities are further illustrated from the field of the country church in connection with the little Baptist church in Swansea, Massachusetts, and here we find the results in considerable measure due to the historical alertness of the historian-minister just referred to. The church was approaching its two hundred and fiftieth anni-

versary, for it had been founded—the first Baptist church within the present limits of Massachusetts—in 1663. The historical situation attracted some attention; the church was passing through experiences similar to that of many a country church, and many doubted if it could long survive. Some facts were well known connected with the church—for example, that its founder and first pastor, John Myles, an ancestor of General Nelson Miles, had been an active man of affairs as well as an efficient minister in Wales. It was decided to study the historical opportunities latent in the church, and soon these opened wide. A representative committee added some support from a widespread region. A program lasting over a week was arranged, which emphasized not merely the historical aspects of the church and its quarto-millennium, but blended with this some recognition of the contributions which the church itself and the religious movement with which it was connected had made to the welfare of the local community, the state and the nation. John Myles was the founder of churches in Wales as well as in Massachusetts; a late successor of Myles in the pastorate of the Welsh church was among the speakers. A second day was devoted to pilgrimages to the historic spots in Swansea, and the addresses centered about the expansion of this church into other communities. On the third day an educational meeting was held at Warren, R. I., at which President Faunce gave an address upon "The Church as the Founder of Schools." Three sessions on Sunday centered respectively about the history of the local church: "Commemorating a Quarter Millennium of Church Life" (with the chief historical discourse of the celebration); "The Baptist Status after 250 Years," presented by the pastor of the most famous First Baptist Church of Boston; and in the evening, the recognition by the town of Swansea of the contribution of the church to its welfare. Monday the Baptist Ministers' Meeting in Boston devoted its session to the celebration, perhaps the chief address being that of Professor Rowe on "The Welsh Element in American Baptist Development." In the evening the Baptist Social Union participated in the general program, Dr. Shailer Mathews speaking on "The Social Influence of the Baptists." The celebration closed with a meeting at Swansea, the regular annual meeting of the Taunton Association, a fitting close to a celebration which from its inception was planned to blend to-

gether the historical and the practical interests of the little country church and the community, both local and that of the broader horizon. A commemorative volume, entitled "Elements in Baptist Development," has been published.

Not many of our country churches can boast of a quarter millennium of local history, and it is true that the Swansea Church has some unique relationships with the history both of Massachusetts and of Wales; but many another country church has a history that is just as real and which can be utilized by the local church and by the local teacher of history in stimulating an interest in history; and at the same time history can be utilized as a servant of other interests. We sometimes complain that historical movements are not easily financed, but if the historical work can be linked up with the practical institutional activities and the betterment movements of our community life, there will always be found the means to carry on the historical work. Nowhere can this be accomplished more distinctively than in connection with the history in the country church.

I hope this paper has not been too far afield from the desires of the program makers. When the first invitation came to me to prepare a paper for this occasion, I was asked to write one on local ecclesiastical records. Let me close by stating that the sort of historical work which I have been describing is best adapted to disclose the extant records which perchance have long been hidden away and forgotten. In the memorial volume issued to commemorate the Swansea celebration, you will find a facsimile photograph of an old volume of records, and also of one of its pages. Not many years ago Dr. N. E. Wood picked up from a sewing machine in the Baptist parsonage at Swansea an old record book; it was simply a plaything of the children. Simply that? By no means. It proved to be the record book of the old church at Ilston in Wales, whose history lies back of the foundation of the Swansea, Massachusetts, church; it contains the records of the first Baptist Church of Wales, giving facts which so far as known are ascertainable from no other source. I may be misled in my judgment, but I am inclined to doubt if there are a dozen more important manuscript documents in this country relating to the history of Britain than is this old record book, that might so easily have been destroyed in a spring house-cleaning and lost forever.

Doubtless in other parsonages and near other rural churches are other record books and other documents which may be discovered, indicated to the historians, and preserved, if the teachers of history in the vicinities of these churches will stimulate the study of their local history, utilizing anniversary occasions, and constantly asking their pupils to bring in to them information concerning any old record books which may be lying about their homes.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PRINCETON'S LOCAL HISTORY

By Robert McNutt McElroy
Princeton University

In almost every community there are collections of historical material containing items of importance to the nation. For the student, whose interest is purely local, these are of little value, relating as they do to distinctly national questions; while to the national historian they are inaccessible, it being obviously impossible for the investigator in such broad fields to delve very deeply into local collections. The intensive study of local collections by men with the national outlook would bring to light much valuable material. We know, for example, the history of the Louisiana Purchase, in a measure; but we shall know its history much better when the local archives of regions most affected by it shall be made to give up their secrets.

A community like Princeton can scarcely be regarded as typical in this regard, for its local history has been for generations under the keen scrutiny of men searching for items touching the national life; but I shall attempt to indicate a few of the many instances in which its local history has had a national significance.

When viewed from the standpoint of European towns, Princeton is extremely young; but in comparison with other American settlements she is quite a matron. When, in 1696, Richard Stockton and half a dozen Quaker families, eager to escape from the presence of the unbrotherly Puritans, settled upon the banks of Stony Brook,* Jamestown was only eighty-nine years old, Plymouth was seventy-six, and Philadelphia had been laid out just fourteen years. Nassau Street, or the King's Highway, which runs in front of the building where we are assembled, had lately been an Indian pathway across the state.

The origin of the name Princeton lies in the shadows of un-

* Stockton named Stony Brook in memory of a stream which he had known and loved during a brief residence on Long Island.

explored history. FitzRandolph's Journal assures us that it was first used "At the raising of the first house built there by James Leonard in 1724;" * but he fails to tell us why it was adopted. Some claim that it was given in honor of William Prince of Orange, who had died only twenty-two years before, and many of whose loyal subjects had taken refuge in America and some in this immediate region; but this is unlikely. The most probable explanation of the name being that Kingston was named first as being on the old King's Highway leading from New Brunswick to Trenton. Next by natural association came Queens town, then Princes town and then Princess ville.

During the first half century of her history Princeton was much like other little hamlets in the state. The French traveler, savant and major general, Marquis de Chastellux, has left a note which tells us how it looked in 1781. "It has only one street formed by the highroad. There are about sixty or eighty houses, all tolerably well built, but little attention is paid to them, for that is immediately attracted by an immense building, which is visible at a considerable distance. It is a college building built by the state of Jersey some years before the war."

The Marquis, as you see, is not particularly accurate in his statement of fact, but his heart was right. Nassau Hall was not "built by the state of New Jersey," but that great building was seen by him truly as the symbol of the value of this little village, the outstanding cause why Princeton was different from other little villages through which he had passed in his wanderings.

It was with the coming of the sixth College President, John Witherspoon, that the college and the village began to figure largely in the wider field of Colonial and intercolonial politics. His coming was due largely to the personal efforts of Richard Stockton, later a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and a citizen whose name will always be honored in the nation.

President Witherspoon's arrival happened to fall at a time when the shadow of great political changes was already upon the land. Samuel Adams' circular letter to the American Colonies had been issued. John Hancock's sloop "Liberty" had just been seized. British troops were expected in Boston, and in October,

* Journal, December 28, 1758.

1768, they arrived, not, as Franklin grandly predicted, to find a Revolution, but to make one.

The non-importation acts were causing distress in America as well as England, and in July, 1770, the New York merchants abandoned them and wrote urging the Philadelphia merchants to do the same. A copy of this letter falling into the hands of the student body here caused what was regarded by the loyal as a riot, and on July 23, 1770, James Madison, a leading rioter, wrote: We have news of "The base conduct of the merchants in New York in breaking through their spirited resolutions not to import. The letter to the merchants of Philadelphia requesting their concurrence was lately burned by the students of this place in the College yard, all of them appearing in black gowns, and the bell tolling." In that black-gowned group of academic rioters were several men, besides the writer of this letter, who now stand out clearly in the history of the nation.

In fact, the place was infested with the patriotism which was then rebellion. This spirit grew as the war of the Revolution came on, and when John Adams, on his way to Philadelphia to attend the First Continental Congress, passed through this village (August 27, 1774), he wrote in his journal that he had spent the day at Princeton, where "the scholars sung as badly as the Presbyterians in New York," and where the President, Scotchman though he is, "is as high a son of liberty as any man in America."

We had our local tea-party, also, in the stirring days of 1774. A letter discovered by Professor Collins a few years ago tells its story: "Last week to show our patriotism we gathered all the Steward's winter store of tea and, having made a fire in the campus, we there burnt near a dozen pounds, tolled the bell, and made many spirited resolves. But this was not all. Poor Mr. Hutchin's effigy shared the same fate with the tea, having a tea cannister tied about his neck." *

It seems sad that in their generous enthusiasm they did not have our Lake Carnegie to serve as the counterpart of Boston Harbor.

At news of General Gage's rash conduct in Boston precipitating hostilities, a Princeton mass-meeting urged the formation

* C. C. Beatty to Enoch Greer, Jan. 31, 1774—MS., Princeton Library.

of a Provincial Congress,* which was accordingly assembled at Trenton, May 23, 1775, with five members at least from Princeton and six graduates of the College. When it adjourned in August, it left a Committee of Safety to act during its recess, and its first meetings were held in Princeton. Here, in January, 1776, this Committee provided a system for sending revolutionary intelligence to other parts of the Colony, and ordered that a mounted messenger be kept always ready to ride. Thus Princeton, as well as Boston, has her "Paul Revere," but she unfortunately failed to develop a poet to immortalize him. It was the Provincial Congress which erected New Jersey into an Independent State, drafting and putting into operation the State Constitution of 1776, in the drafting of which Princeton's delegates were prominent. Tradition declares that it was drafted in a house which stood where Mr. Morgan's house now stands, which site has since been known as "Constitution Hill." Its adoption was itself a sort of preliminary declaration of independence.

The strong stand for liberty taken by Richard Stockton and John Witherspoon caused them to be selected by the New Jersey Provincial Congress as members of the new delegation sent by New Jersey to the Second Continental Congress then sitting at Philadelphia, and to Stockton the instructions were delivered: "We empower you to join . . . in declaring the United States independent of Great Britain."

When a few weeks later the great declaration was hanging in the balance, some delegates to the Continental Congress hesitating to sign a document which would brand them as traitors to their Mother Country, Princeton's President, John Witherspoon, rose in his place, "an aged patriarch . . . venerable and stately . . . his head white with the frost of years," but his eye bright with the gleam of a great vision for his adopted land. "He cast on the assembly the look of . . . unconquerable determination," and his soft Scotch accents rose to the tones of a Highland war-cry as he said: "There is a tide in the affairs of men, a nick of time. We perceive it now before us. To hesitate is to consent to our

* "In this extremity," the resolutions declare, ". . . we think that a communication of sentiment from the different parts of our Province should take place; and that no mode of doing this is so proper as that of a Provincial Congress."—Resolutions adopted by the inhabitants of Princeton on April 24, 1775.

own slavery. This noble instrument upon your table . . . should be subscribed this very morning by every pen in this house. . . . Of property I have some, of reputation more. That reputation is staked, that property is pledged on the issue of this contest. . . . Although these gray hairs must soon descend into the sepulchre, I would . . . rather that they descend . . . by the hand of the executioner than desert at this crisis the sacred cause of my country." It was the blood of old John Knox * speaking through his illustrious descendant, breaking the spirit which has made Scotland unconquerable.

And they did sign. The resolution of independence was passed on July 2, and on the 4th the formal declaration was adopted, Richard Stockton and John Witherspoon unhesitatingly affixing their names. It is an honor which makes this little village unique, that out of the 55 members whose names stand upon that immortal parchment, two were our fellow-townsmen, and one other, Benjamin Rush, was a graduate of the College. It is also a pleasure to recall the fact that the Declaration was read from the steps of this very building a few hours after its adoption, the post rider carrying it to New York having halted here for refreshment, and the student body doing the rest.

Just two weeks after the signing of the Declaration of Independence, New Jersey assumed the title of a state and set about organizing her government under the constitution which had been written here in Princeton. The first meeting of the Legislature convened in this very room, on August 27, 1776, and here chose the first of her state governors, General William Livingston, Richard Stockton standing second in the balloting. Here the new Governor declared his inaugural address, and here the first great seal of the state was adopted.

The Legislature continued in Princeton until October, 1776, when the invading army of Red Coats routed them; but when the battle of Princeton had again rendered the region secure, they returned, and Princeton continued to be the seat of the state government, as well as that of the Council of Safety, until the latter part of the year 1778. Of the battle of Princeton, soon to be commemorated by the erection of a national monument, I shall

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* T. W. Woods, John Witherspoon, 12.

not speak, as that task has been confided to the more experienced hands of my friend and master, Professor Sloane. It has always been recognized as a turning point in the fortunes of the American army. No less a personage than General Cornwallis himself predicted, at a dinner given him by the Americans after the surrender at Yorktown, that "When the illustrious part that your Excellency has borne in this . . . contest becomes matter of history, fame will gather your brightest laurels rather from the banks of the Delaware than from those of the Chesapeake." And Leeky, an even less favorable witness, declares that upon this victory of the Americans, "a sudden revulsion of sentiments took place in New Jersey . . . a fatal damp was thrown upon the cause of the Loyalists in America from which it never fully recovered." Trevelyan, himself an Englishman, declares: "The most important results . . . of Trenton and Princeton were not of a local or a temporary character. The permanent and paramount consequences of those masterly operations was the establishment of Washington's military reputation and the increased weight of his political and administrative authority throughout every state of the Confederacy and up to the very latest hour of the war." These are the opinions of historians with a world outlook, and to them we need add nothing, and from them we need subtract nothing for local prejudice.

Hitherto Princeton's part in national affairs had been confined to the large influence of her citizens in its Councils, and to the fact that it was the center of the Revolutional political and military operations of the new state; but now, in 1783, she was to become for a time the seat of the national government itself. "The times that tried men's souls are over," said Thomas Paine when the news of the Peace of Versailles reached him. But prophet and sage as he had proved himself during the war, his genius failed him in making this prediction. The times that tried men's souls were only half over. A nation had been born, but it was still a nation in the weakness of infancy, intent upon trying an experiment in government such as the world had never seen and which many of the wisest of the world's political philosophers considered doomed to a dismal failure. The army, relieved of the presence of a dangerous enemy, began turning its thoughts in upon its own heart. Pay in arrears, want coming upon them like an armed man,

political unrest and governmental impotency, all combined to produce a crisis as acute and threatening as that which had faced the Colonies when General Gage had occupied Boston.

The Central Government, whose slight powers made it an object of ridicule and contempt, was holding its sparsely attended meetings at Philadelphia. The army was threatening to break into the national treasury and help itself to the deposits; but, had they forced an entrance, they would have found only emptiness. So far they did not go; but on June 21, 1783, some eighty soldiers of the Pennsylvania line, mutinous and sullen that the government had not paid them their dues, drew up in a line before the state house in which the old Congress was sitting, threatening to seize the people's representatives and hold them as guarantee for the money due them.

It has been intimated, probably without justice, that the young Alexander Hamilton, and some other young bloods, weary of the monotony of the Quaker City, and anxious to get the government moved to the more congenial surroundings of New York, had arranged this little incident as a means of securing a parting from Philadelphia. But whatever the reason, it succeeded. President Dickinson, of Pennsylvania, and his state militia offered no protection to the hard-pressed American Congress. The old Quaker City of 32,000 inhabitants looked on in silence, half fearful, half contemptuous, while the Congress of the new nation took to its heels, fled across the river, and wended its way to the friendly shelter of Nassau Hall; and Princeton became the seat of the only government acknowledged by all the Thirteen Colonies.

The Congress assembled here on June 26, 1783, and eight days later the Fourth of July was celebrated here with appropriate ceremonies. A tradition declares that the line of old Catalpas which still stand on Stockton Street, in front of the Princeton Inn, the grounds of the old Stockton homestead, were planted that same year in memory of the Fourth of July on which Princeton served as the capital of the Republic.

In the autumn of that same year, the annual Commencement of the College of New Jersey was graced by the presence of Washington and the nation's Congress. At its close Washington presented to the Trustees a purse containing fifty guineas, with which they wisely employed a great artist, the elder Peale, to paint a

portrait of the General in his Continental uniform. That picture hangs above you to-day, framed with the frame that held the portrait of George II, which Alexander Hamilton had unintentionally decapitated with his six-pounder, in "the times that tried men's souls."

The history of the old Congress has been graphically presented to you in a volume by Professor V. S. Collins. I shall not trespass upon the ground so faithfully and so lovingly traversed by his pen. It is the crowning incident in the Revolutionary history of our little commonwealth. The picture of the stately forms, even then recognized as world figures, who passed across this lawn and threshold are there given at full length and true to life. Read it for yourselves, and in reading you will learn, more and more, to join with us in reverencing the shades which curtained the cradle of our great Republic. Of Princeton's part in the Convention of 1787, I can only say that, of the fifty-five members, twenty-nine were college graduates, of whom nine received their college training upon the ground where we are now assembled. In religion, learning, politics and war Princeton has played a conspicuous part in the history of this nation. In science her contribution has been large, for on this campus was set up the first electro-magnetic telegraph line known to the world. It connected this very building with the house of Professor Henry, which stood where Reunion Hall stands to-day, but which, with a habit peculiar to Princeton's residences, later took up its position next to the College Chapel, and is now the official residence of the Dean of the College.

In spite of the modern tendency to count man for man, I dare to say here and now that inhabitants, like the golden coin of the Middle Ages, are to be weighed, not counted, when tracing the sweep of historical forces. One John Witherspoon, James Madison, or "Light Horse" Harry Lee—even one Philip Freeman or Joseph Henry—counts more in the history of a nation than many thousands of honest and high-minded citizens to whom God has denied the divine touch of genius. It is because circumstances early gathered in this place a large proportion of such men that Princeton's local history is so full of items of national importance.

HISTORY TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By William Fairley
Commercial High School, Brooklyn

There is complaint, nation-wide, of the difficulty of obtaining teachers for the secondary schools. If this lack is to be met by attracting into the work a poorer class of candidates, the result will soon be deplorable. If, however, as we hope, it is going to arouse taxpayers and educational authorities to the conviction that in order to secure a desirable class of teachers they must pay them better, the result will be highly just and to be desired. Particularly is there an acute need of more and better trained men as secondary teachers. We say men because the need is not so strongly felt in the case of women teachers. Teaching is probably the profession which most women graduates of our colleges are likely to take up. The supply of such teachers is relatively abundant. With men it is different. Increasingly the men from our colleges are going into business. An unfortunate feeling has grown up that high school teaching "is not a man's job." It is not our purpose to argue that question.

For several seasons past a number of associations of history teachers have addressed themselves to the problem of how to secure a larger and better supply of men teachers for the field of history. The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has taken upon itself, through a committee, to present certain facts and to make certain recommendations which we hope may result in calling attention to this problem and in helping toward its solution. Whatever we try to do is to be done in no selfish effort for the field of history alone. *Mutatis mutandis* our efforts will apply equally to all departments of secondary work. Much of the information in the report will be welcome to prospective teachers, men and women, in any field.

We therefore urge upon men students in our colleges and universities that they take up the profession of teaching history in secondary schools. We do so for several good reasons.

1. There is a need of such service.

2. Such service offers one of the finest opportunities for usefulness. History and the cognate subjects, rightly taught by trained people, deal directly with the fundamental facts of life and of citizenship.

3. The profession offers fairly good rewards to worthy teachers. No one expects to get rich by teaching, any more than by preaching; but the teacher can expect better material returns than can the preacher. The able secondary teacher cannot expect the rewards of the great lawyer or surgeon; but the man who has put into training for teaching as much effort as the young lawyer or doctor is practically sure of a better average reward than the latter will obtain.

It is true that students of history in our graduate schools, as a class, hope to secure teaching positions in colleges. Such positions are much fewer in number than are the secondary positions. Not all can become professors of history. Moreover, the road to a professorship is a weary one. Initial salaries of college instructors are proverbially low. And maximum salaries for even full professors in our average colleges are below the standards of school salaries in many of our cities. Such cities also offer inducements in their security of tenure and their pension systems. We present these facts purely as a business proposition, and as an offset to the prevalent feeling that college work is more distinguished and congenial. It takes a lot of congeniality to be worth a thousand dollars a year. And as to social standing, that must be what the man himself makes it. A teacher in a German gymnasium ranks with the university teacher, and he may do so here in America when by his work and life he proves his worth.

Next, we wish to impress upon such students as think of entering upon the teaching of history the need of thorough preparation not only in the subject-matter of history, but in methods of teaching. The requirements for license as a high school teacher in various cities as set forth in Appendix I show that mere knowledge of a few fields of history is not sufficient. The candidate must not merely know history, but must also know how to teach it. This is as it should be, and the sooner all our communities make similar demands the better it will be for the profession of teaching.

The young man who intends to become a history teacher in one of our better educational systems should prepare himself along the following lines: Ancient, Mediæval and Modern European, English and American History. He will probably find that he must take tests in the history and principles of education, in school and

class-room methods, in psychology and in methods of teaching history. Cognate studies in economics, political science and sociology are also advisable. If practice teaching can be secured, so much the better.

We respectfully urge the faculties of history in our colleges and universities to make an effort to help us in attracting men into this field, and in preparing them for it. Several things they may do.

One is, to give currency to this pamphlet among their students. Next, they can aid by directing fit people into this work. Then they can guide them in their preparation by suggesting proper courses. Finally, we strongly recommend that our colleges, and specifically our graduate schools, offer courses in methods of teaching history. We are well aware that these faculties of history, particularly in the graduate schools, maintain that it is not their function to train men to teach. Their aim is to guide in research. But, as a matter of fact, ninety-nine per cent of their students expect to teach—those who can find places, in the colleges; the rest in secondary schools. Would not a business man, looking over the situation, say that such men ought to have training in the art of teaching as well as in the science of history? Alongside of the history department can often be found that of education. It would be well if those who expect to teach history could be directed to find in such departments of education the technical training requisite for their profession. Appendix II shows how one undergraduate school and one graduate school are meeting this problem.

We desire also to make a plea to educational authorities—superintendents of schools and boards of education—if this pamphlet shall fall into their hands, to raise their standards for licensing teachers to the higher levels indicated by the eligibility rules of the best communities cited in Appendix I and in states in Appendix III. Too often the sentiment is expressed that "anyone can teach history." To teach it as it is worthy of being taught requires as much specific training as to teach mathematics, language or science.

APPENDIX I

Requirements Demanded and Salaries Offered in Cities Within the Limits of This Association

The following facts are set forth for the information of stu-

dents in the hope that they may serve as both guide and inducement to such as may be led to devote themselves to the teaching of history in high schools. Information as to times and places of examination for license should be sought from the respective superintendents of schools. Not all can at once secure positions in these larger cities. Many of them require that a candidate have had some experience, which may often be secured in the smaller towns. Most of the larger cities maintain eligible lists of teachers, and it is well to get one's name upon such a list and wait for an opening.

Requirements for Licenses

Buffalo, N. Y.:

One of the following:

(a) Graduation from an approved college, and graduation from a pedagogical course in a university or college, or in lieu of graduation from such pedagogical course, one year's experience in teaching.

(b) A State Normal School Diploma and three years' experience in teaching.

(c) A High School Diploma, together with graduation from a Teachers' Training School, and also three years' experience in teaching.

(d) Eight years' experience as public school teacher.

According to a provision of the Ordinances of the City of Buffalo, Section 83, Chapter 14, "No person who has not had two years of experience in teaching, shall be eligible to appointment as a teacher in any High School."

Salaries

$1,200-$2,000.

Requirements for License

The City of New York:

Asst. Teacher—One of the following qualifications:

(a) Graduation from a recognized college or university, or, in the case of applicants for license to teach modern foreign languages, the equivalent, together with one of the following:

(1) Not less than 160 days' experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges.

(2) Not less than 300 hours of post-graduate work in a recognized college or university, of which time at least 60 hours shall

be devoted to methods of teaching the subject or subjects in which applicant seeks a license, unless satisfactory courses equivalent to such 60 hours were successfully taken during the senior year of the undergraduate course, in which case only 240 hours of post-graduate work are required.

(3) Not less than 80 days of experience in teaching in secondary schools or colleges, together with not less than 150 hours of post-graduate work in a recognized college or university, of which time at least 60 hours shall be devoted to methods of teaching the special subject in which applicant seeks a license, unless courses equivalent to such 60 hours were successfully taken during the senior year of the undergraduate course, in which case only 90 hours of post-graduate work are required.

(4) Two years' experience in teaching in grades of the last four years of the elementary schools of the City of New York, and university or college post-graduate work amounting to not less than 150 hours, 60 hours of which time shall be devoted to methods of teaching appropriate to the subject in which the applicant seeks a license.

(b) Graduation from an approved normal school or city training school course; 5 years' experience in teaching, including either 1 year of teaching in grades of the last 2 years of the New York City public elementary schools or 2 years of teaching in secondary schools other than the public high schools of New York City; and the completion of satisfactory university or college courses in the subject in which applicant seeks a license, amounting to not less than 150 hours, at least 30 of which shall have been in the science of education.

Any or all of the days or hours (5 of which shall be equivalent to a day) of experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges mentioned in paragraphs (1), (2) and (3) of clause (a) and in clause (d) may be obtained by teaching as a teacher in training in any of the high schools of the City of New York, under following conditions:

* (1) A teacher in training shall be a graduate from a recog-

* Particular attention is called to the provisions for Teachers in Training, as they form a fine method of entrance into the New York City system. The teacher in training may serve his one hundred and sixty days in this capacity to gain the experience required for regular license, and may at once become a substitute at $4.00 per day until he secures a regular license and appointment.

nized college or university, and shall have spent, during his last 2 years in college or during post-graduate work, or partly in one and partly in the other, at least 300 hours in studying the subjects comprised within some one of the groups for which licenses are issued to assistant teachers in high schools. Such teachers in training shall be required to hold a license granted by Board of Examiners, and such licenses may be issued upon recommendations of appropriate heads of departments or professors in the college from which applicant has graduated, approved by chief executive officer of the college, and upon such other investigation as Board of Examiners may deem necessary.

(2) A committee composed of 2 associate city superintendents and the principal of any high school may assign to such high school persons holding licenses as teachers in training. The number of persons assigned to any one high school, however, shall not exceed 1 teacher in training to every 15 authorized teaching positions. Such teachers in training shall be given opportunity to conduct at least 1 class recitation each day, to render service in place of absent teachers, to observe work of experienced teachers, and to assist generally in such school duties as may be assigned to them by the principal. Teachers in training assigned to high schools receive compensation at the rate of 40c. per hour, total compensation, however, not exceeding $2 per day.

First Assistant Teacher—One of the following qualifications: (a) College or university graduation, 1 year post-graduate course and 5 years' high school or college teaching experience, 3 years being in city high schools; (b) same as (a), except teaching experience may be 7 years in secondary schools, experience in city schools not required.

SALARIES

Assistant teachers, $900-$2,650; First Assistants, $2,730-$3,150. Teachers in training receive 40c. per hour for not over five hours a day.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.:

REQUIREMENTS

A candidate for a high school position must be a graduate of a college or of a normal school of approved standing and must have had at least two years' successful experience in teaching high school subjects.

Every candidate must possess a certificate issued or endorsed by the State Education Department entitling him to teach in the schools of cities of the second class in the department for which he has made application.

SALARIES

Women, $550-$950; men, $1,000-$1,600.

JERSEY CITY, N. J.:

REQUIREMENTS

"An academic training," and at least three years' experience in teaching or supervision.

SALARIES

Women, $900-$1,800; men, $1,500-$2,500.

NEWARK, N. J.:

REQUIREMENTS

Graduation from an approved college or university, with not less than two years' experience in teaching the subject in which license is sought.

SALARIES

Women, $900-$1,800; men, $1,400-$2,500.

PATERSON, N. J.:

REQUIREMENTS

Graduation from an approved college, with major work in history and successful experience. [Amount not stated.]

SALARIES

$900-$2,500.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.:

REQUIREMENTS

Graduation from college or its equivalent.

SALARIES

Women, $900-$1,300; men, $1,100 and up.

PITTSBURGH, PA.:

SALARIES

$1,000-$2,300.

WASHINGTON, D. C.:

REQUIREMENTS

A college degree: tests in English, psychology, history of education, major test in history.

Baltimore, Md.:

Requirements

College graduation, or equivalent.

Salaries

Women, $700-$1,200; men, $1,000-$1,800.

APPENDIX II

Dr. William Fairley, Principal,
Commercial High School,
Albany Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.

My Dear Dr. Fairley: I have not forgotten to give you a statement concerning our method of preparing teachers for the high schools:

In the Department of Education of the City College, one of the courses offered is Education 5, namely, Secondary Education. It is intended to prepare students for teaching in the high schools of the city. The course is most carefully organized. It is confined to students of the senior year and is made up of the cream of the student body. No one is admitted to the course unless he presents to the professor of education a statement signed by the head of the department of the subject which he is to teach, to the effect that he is qualified from the standpoint of both scholarship and personality to teach in the high schools. His general record is then secured by the professor of education from the Dean, and if after a personal interview the professor of education approves, he is admitted to the course which is restricted to twenty-five.

The students meet the instructor in charge, Dr. James Robert White, three times a week for recitation and discussion on high school problems. They use De Garmo's Secondary Education and Brown's American High Schools as texts, and Hall's Adolescence for collateral reading. Each student must make twenty observations of teachers in his subject in our own preparatory department, Townsend Harris Hall. The day after an observation he must make a written report to Dr. White, criticizing what he observed from the standpoint of the principles agreed upon in the classroom. In addition each student must teach at least one hour a week his subject in Townsend Harris Hall. He takes the place of the

regular teacher and conducts the work exactly as if he were the regular teacher. In the afternoon of the same day he meets Dr. White for an hour's criticism of his work. Finally, each student must hand to Dr. White before the close of the year a thesis on some problem or aspect of high school training. At the end of the year Dr. White makes a thorough statement to the professor of education as to the qualities of each individual student and states whether the student is to be recommended to teach in the high schools. A copy of this statement is forwarded to the Board of Examiners.

Sincerely yours,
STEPHEN P. DUGGAN,
Professor of Education.

The requirements for admission to Teachers College, Columbia University, for those who elect history as a major subject, is a bachelor's degree from an approved college or scientific school. The courses and training provided by Teachers' College and other departments of Columbia University lead to the university degrees, Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy, and at the same time to the Teachers' College Diploma in History. The diplomas are of two general kinds, the College certifying in the one case that the successful candidate is qualified for the position of teacher of history in secondary schools or normal schools, and in the other case that he is qualified for the position of head of department of history in secondary schools or normal schools.

The minimum period of residence study is one year for the degree of Master of Arts and two years for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with work amounting to about forty hours a week, including class attendance. The candidate's program is made up in part of courses in education—educational psychology, educational sociology, educational philosophy, administration, supervision, the history of education, the teaching of history, and in part of university courses in history.

The department of history at Teachers College offers one general course on the teaching of history in elementary schools, one general course on the teaching of history in normal schools, one general course on the teaching of history in secondary schools, one training course in the study of history with materials drawn from the literature of American history, and one intensive course designed for the

investigation of special problems connected with history teaching and for experimentation. The general courses include in their respective fields a brief historical survey of conditions in Europe and in the United States, a detailed study of present conditions in Europe and in the United States, a description and appraisal of available apparatus, definite suggestions for classroom exercises especially adapted to American needs, and practical work consisting of the observation and criticism of actual class lessons, the preparation of lesson plans, and, for students without previous experience, some practice in teaching. The exact nature of the practical work is determined by individual needs and individual plans for the future. Candidates for positions in normal schools may in addition to the kind of practical work already indicated, be assigned exercises in the supervision of class instruction and in the making of history programs. The field of the intensive course is usually confined to a single topic. One year has recently been devoted to a description and testing of special aids to visualization, another to the use of maps, and still another to the question of aims and values in the teaching of history.

All candidates for the Diploma in History are required to take the general course that treats of the teaching of history in the kind of school in which they expect to serve.

Candidates without experience in teaching are required to take also the training course in the study of history. Candidates with experience in teaching may omit this training course, but are required to take the intersine course. The Diploma in History is in any case awarded only to those who have demonstrated their fitness both to study and to teach history.

APPENDIX III

Model State Requirements for Secondary Teachers

1. Regular Certification By County Board of Education.

The law provides that the State Board of Education shall prescribe general rules under which county boards, and city and county boards of education may grant regular certificates of high school grade.

This revision has been made in the interest of clearness, and to bring the California requirements into harmony with the best practice of other states and recent legislation. These regulations shall

apply to all candidates receiving their university recommendations after February 1, 1915.

1. Requirements

High school certificates may be issued by county and city and county boards of education under the provisions of section 1519, subdivision 5 (*a*); section 1775, subdivision 1 (*a*), and section 1792 of the Political Code of California, to candidates who meet all of the following requirements, to wit:

(1) Requirement of Bachelor's Degree.

Each candidate shall have received a Bachelor's degree from a standard college requiring not less than eight years of high school and college training.

(2) Requirement of One Year of Graduate Study.

Each candidate shall submit evidence that in addition to the academic and professional courses required for the Bachelor's degree, he has completed at least one year of graduate study, doing full regular work, though not necessarily a candidate for a degree, in an approved graduate school as hereinafter defined. Such graduate study shall include at least one full year course of advanced or graduate work in at least one of the subjects in which candidate expects to be recommended for certification.

(3) Requirement of Fifteen Units of Work in Education.

Each candidate shall also submit evidence that he has completed in undergraduate or graduate standing, or the two combined, not less than fifteen units (semester hours) of work, in courses listed in the department of education in the institution in which the graduate work is completed, or courses in other departments of that or other institutions accepted as preparation for teaching by the department of education. These fifteen units of work shall include the several courses in education hereinafter prescribed.

DISCUSSION

Anne Bush MacLear, Hunter College: My share in this discussion of the morning is to give an account of the way Hunter College is trying to solve the problem of raising the level of history teaching. With the attempt we are in hearty accord. We are endeavoring to send out our students fully equipped, not only in regard to subject-matter but in regard to method of presenting the subject-matter to pupils. With these ends in view, Hunter College offers in the senior year a course in the methods of teaching

history. This is an optional covering two semesters, two hours the first half year and three the second. To it are admitted only those students whom the members of the department consider fitted to teach in high schools. The decision concerning their ability or inability to teach history in high schools is made with great care. The scholarship, personality, and diligence of each applicant are considered. Every student who wishes to take the course must have had as prerequisites a year's work in European history, a year's work in American history, the same in English history and the principles of economics and of government. She must, moreover, just before entering the course pass a fairly severe examination covering the general field of history. And finally she must have the personality which, to the members of the department, seems to ensure her success as a high school teacher.

As I said before, the method course covers a year. The first semester, however, is in charge of the Pedagogy Department, under the direct supervision of the head of the department, and is intended to give the student a basis for the second term's work. The first few weeks of this semester are devoted to the study of the curriculum and the general administration of the high school. Then more specific work in relation to history teaching is begun and the knowledge gained during the earlier weeks of the course is now used in planning history courses, in discussing the principles that lie at the base of such courses, and the relation of history to the other subjects of the curriculum. The course is conducted by lectures, reports and discussions. During this semester much use is made of Brown's "Making of the Middle School and the Training of Teachers in Secondary Schools," Stanley Hall's "Youth," and Johnson's "High School Administration." The work of the second semester is under the direction of the History Department and is more practical. Its aim is to make the students familiar with the general problems connected with teaching history and to give them a mastery of the teaching process by showing them the best methods and by giving them the opportunity to test these methods in a class room. Three hours a week are given to the course. One hour is spent in class discussion and two in observation and teaching. This amounts during the term to about seventeen hours of observation, eight of teaching, and eleven of discussion. The observations are carefully planned and supervised. A list of points to be noted is given the students; for example, their attention is called to the form and nature of the questions asked by the teachers they visit, the use of the map, the method of reviewing. In addition, the students must make written reports of their observations, comparing the methods of the different teachers they have seen, which reports are used as a basis for class discussions. The students

observe two or three hours and then begin to teach. They are assigned to definite classes in the high school which they teach under the direction of the class teacher and the instructor of the method course. The teaching is watched most closely and the merits and defects of her work are pointed out to the pupil-teacher at the close of each recitation.

The discussion hour is spent in studying the methods of teaching; for example, the way to assign a lesson, to conduct a review, to use sources and a text book, to correlate history and geography, and to use illustrative material. To get a basis for discussion of these topics, the students read as widely as possible on the subject for the day, using for the purpose the articles in the History Teachers' Magazine, the curriculums of the Horace Mann and Ethical Culture Schools, the Syllabus of the Regents of the State of New York; Bourne's "Teaching of History and Civics," Fling's "Outline of Historical Methods," Hall's "Methods of Teaching History," the Reports of the Committee of Seven and of Ten, Hindale's "How to Study and Teach History," as well as many other books on the subject.

During this term, therefore, the student spends about 36 hours in gaining some insight into the problem of teaching history. We do not consider that she knows how to teach, but we feel that she at least knows something of the task that awaits her, and that she has some idea of the course to pursue in order to become that useful member of society—an excellent teacher.

Albert E. McKinley, Temple University, Philadelphia: The previous speakers have dwelt upon the necessity of properly preparing teachers of history and have described the methods used in several institutions. I would like to dwell upon the necessity of doing something for the body of teachers already engaged in their professional work.

The annual increment from normal and college graduates into the teaching profession makes but a very small proportion of the whole body. If any successful raising of the standards of history teaching is to be brought about it must be done by appealing to the older graduates, as well as improving the teaching in our normal schools and colleges. The colleges and universities of our territory can aid the history teacher in many ways. Among other methods which have been used in this territory and elsewhere to accomplish this result, I name the following:

1. A more explicit statement of the entrance requirements in history in college catalogues. Many of our catalogues still state the entrance requirements in history in an indefinite manner. Teachers and students preparing for such examinations have no guide, no list of topics, no methods of work pointed out to them.

We need as explicit a statement in history as has been made in English, Latin and the sciences.

2. The universities in many parts of the country are already doing a great deal to advance the work of history teaching through the courses offered in summer schools. These courses not only give training in method, but, better still, add to the historical content of the history teacher's mind. They serve also to encourage friendly intercourse between college and secondary school history teachers.

3. Conferences between secondary school teachers and university authorities. These have been developed in some sections of the country to a considerable degree. The University of Illinois holds a very successful conference. Brown University has done the same. The University of Pennsylvania last year inaugurated such a custom. The University of Louisiana holds what is called "Rally Day," in which not only teachers of the secondary schools, but pupils as well, selected for proficiency in their work, are encouraged to visit the University.

4. Continued influence of the University among its graduates in history can be obtained through alumni associations. Thus, the Vassar Historical Alumnæ Association is formed of those who have majored in history at Vassar and aims to keep in touch with their work after graduation. Similar associations exist in Western Reserve University and in a number of other institutions.

5. The University authorities should assist in organizing the high school work of their states. They should give their advice in the making of courses, in the organizing of syllabi, and in the preparation of historical material for school work. The Illinois High School syllabus in history was constructed under the supervision of members of the Department of History of the University. The University of Texas publishes a bulletin in history which is sent out to all the teachers of history in the high schools of the state. The University of Indiana History Department has published a source book in history for use in the schools of the state.

6. A still more recent step is the lending of an historical expert to the communities of the state to assist in organizing the instruction in history. The case in point is that of Mr. Oscar H. Williams, of the University of Indiana, all of whose time for a semester has been assigned by the University for conference with localities. Mr. Williams visits a community, studies the school system, method of instruction, course of study, etc., and after several days or a week or more advises the authorities as to the best course in history to be established.

7. Although I may be heterodox in the view, I believe that very much good could be done to the history teaching of the country if our universities were to offer correspondence courses in history

which paralleled in a university manner the class work given by the teachers in their secondary schools. Some few institutions in the country are doing correspondence work. If this were brought directly into accord with the class work of the teacher it would prove of great value in increasing the teacher's efficiency.

There are doubtless many other ways in which universities may assist in the work of the history teacher. My plea is here that we do not forget the ninety per cent or more of teachers who have been out of college and normal school for some time, and that we continue our influence over them after the days of graduation. The university's duty to the school system does not stop when it has turned out a teacher trained according to its ideals. It must follow that teacher into his or her class room and give him the information and inspiration needed for success therein.

A. W. Risley, State College for Teachers, Albany, N. Y.: The make-up of the history teacher, as described by most of the previous speakers, suggests the following bit of doggerel:

There was a little man,
  Had a wooden leg;
Hadn't any money,
  Didn't want to beg.

So he took four spoons,
  And an old tin can,
Called it a Ford,
  And the blamed thing ran.

And that is the strange thing about the history teacher—the mongrel output runs. It is well known that the colleges of the general type throughout the country are not preparing teachers especially for history. They are situated like Dartmouth, who, as President Nichols frankly says, has no school for practise and so cannot train teachers.

It is not my purpose to outline the courses as pursued in our State College for Teachers, a college that, in addition to the regular college education, has for its special work the training of teachers. Its work has been acknowledged by the main speaker, and the outline of special training given for Hunter College will suffice, in general, for both. One advantage, however, is the location in the same building of the high school, a school of high grade, not to be confused with the city high school. Before graduation, our students must teach satisfactorily at least one semester in this school, under the supervision of an efficient corps of trained critic teachers, who are entirely separated in organization and work from the college faculty.

It seems specially pertinent in view of this discussion to wonder if the labor of an institution of this character is recognized and appreciated. Is it known? Does it rank in your minds with other colleges of recognized importance or is it a sort of a pariah among colleges, to be placed at will among the normal schools of the state, which, however worthy, do not plan to do college work? Is the actual work of training teachers considered of great importance? The program of the recent meeting of the State Teachers' Association at Albany, in its history section, was given to the preparation of papers in history subjects, not specially to the teaching of history. One lecture on methods was concerned largely with the making of text books in history. An illustrated lecture on visual training was much to the point of teaching, the only one on the list. The meetings of the American Historical Association certainly are not given over to discussion of methods by experts, even in the section devoted to secondary history.

It was urged that we should persuade more young men to become history teachers. Frankly, I cannot undertake this with enthusiasm, in the present condition of things, since we have no extensive athletics at our college; however well our graduate may be prepared to teach the subject, he must meet the situation, which is competition with the athletic graduate of some college with athletics. Generally the man who is wanted is a man who can train pupils in some form of athletics; the athlete is hired. The trained teacher of history is the minor consideration. This is neither pessimism nor criticism of athletics on my part, it is merely facing the facts of the case.

This has been the situation and will be till the special need of a special teacher for history is recognized. And that leads me to my particular part in this discussion. An inquiry conducted by Principal J. M. Sayles, the head of our practise school, showed that, out of 68 replies from teachers whom we had graduated, 30 were teaching subjects for which they had made no special preparation. Many of these were teaching the History of the United States, without having taken either methods or a college course in the subject; the part that hurts us is that our work in preparing the history teacher was judged by the class room floundering of a teacher who was teaching with only a high school preparation in the subject. On the other hand, well prepared history teachers were laboring with biology and mathematics classes. They form our dissatisfied group of teachers. And they are the ones with whom the Principal and Superintendent are dissatisfied.

It is fair to conclude that in the face of the actual figures of 30 out of 68, the misfit practise is common. It is a waste of state money that ought not to be tolerated. It is a loss of efficiency that no business house would continue. It presents a lack of co-

ordination between the preparation of the teacher and the position he is forced to take that ought to be understood and remedied. It demands constant advertising on the part of this Association till it shall be generally impossible for a principal or superintendent to widen the gap between the output and the placing of the output, or, in other words, we should make it uncommon to reduce to the lowest degree the efficiency standard of a carefully trained teacher. Therefore, the aspect of this question that appeals to me is, not whether the colleges are doing their duty, but what we can do to make our present efforts of the most value.

Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.: We Normal School teachers are really better judges of the High School product than our distinguished college colleagues, because we see the average result. We receive the boy and girl as they drop from the educational machine without any of the extra polish that is sometimes given them in the college preparatory classes. We get, as our students would say, "the true stuff."

In the State Normal School at Montclair we have over five hundred pupils who represent the accredited high schools of the State of New Jersey. One hundred and nineteen public high schools and forty-nine private high schools and academies—in other words, one hundred and fifty-eight institutions—supply us with material. This creates a fairly typical group of eastern high school graduates. Moreover, our students come from American families; the percentage of foreign-born among them is extremely low. They are from the small cities, the suburban towns, the country farms. They come from the shop-keeping, mercantile, middle classes. I might also say here, that the State law of New Jersey demands and enforces the regulation that all high school teachers, holders of secondary state certificates, must have had some courses in school management, methods of teaching, psychology and history of education. Unless the teacher can present satisfactory evidence of such work in his college course or in summer school courses, he must take the State examinations. New Jersey, therefore, is at least conscious of the "light," and even if she sometimes accepts some pretty hazy professional qualifications, she has had "stirrings of grace."

Now, what of results? How much history does the average high school graduate know, and how well has he been taught? I shall answer my last question first. Occasionally he has been taught very well, but generally there are three definite weaknesses in his history work. First,—inability to organize material; no power of analysis, apparently no capacity to think a subject through or to see the relationship of events to one another. The application of reason and judgment to the study of historical data is abso-

lutely lacking. Indeed, nothing is harder for my classes to do than to prepare a synopsis or make a good outline.

Secondly—and you all know this but too well—the difficulty the high school student has in talking or writing the English language easily and correctly.

Thirdly, the conception of history as a thing apart from any vital interest in the life of the student himself. It is a mass of unrelated facts, some interesting and others dull, which has no connection with him or his daily mental processes. Frequently the history is a mere fog, a vague world peopled with a few distorted facts dimly perceived and not clearly understood. To this third weakness might be added the lack of proper training in geography. The use of a map is often an unheard-of idea in conjunction with the history work.

Are these faults the result of poor teaching? Do they exist because his high school teacher is not trained in pedagogy? Not entirely. No doubt they are sometimes caused by this; but often the teacher is an excellent teacher of Latin or English, but being required "to throw in" history, the history naturally suffers from this athletic handling. It is, so to speak, taught as a side business, and the general efficiency is therefore not great.

Again, history taught in the first high school year, and ancient history at that, makes little impression on the mind of the student, and its reaction three or four years later is hard to judge. If taught in the senior year, it is often merely a review for the college entrance students, and the teacher, despite excellent pedagogical intentions, becomes a victim of the examination or certificate necessities that loom ahead at the end of the course.

These statements you have all heard before. They are the platitudes of these discussions. May I add their corollary? It really belongs under Professor Fairley's last point. It seems idle to criticize the history teaching in the public high school or to ask for better preparation, as graduate work or what not, until more history is taught. Let me tell you plainly that except in a few large city high schools, history has practically no place in the high school curriculum, nor does the public demand that it be taught. My statistics show that about two-thirds of my students have had ancient history in the high school and ancient history only. About one-fifth succeed in passing through without ever being exposed to history in any form. A varying third have taken other history beside the ancient in their four years' course. Actually over a half of those who come to us have no conception of the most elementary historical facts, nor can they understand the ordinary historical allusions in a newspaper or magazine article of the day.

Let me give you a few illustrations taken recently from two groups. These were not dull or stupid classes and they represent

some excellent high schools. In a class of forty, seven alone could explain the meaning of the Crusades or give their results. Five only could discuss the word feudalism even in the most vague fashion. Thirty did not know when the Reformation took place or what it was. Ten knew something about Napoleon, although one girl stated that he lived in the seventeenth century before Christ. None of the class in any way associated Napoleon with the history of the United States. It would be futile to even question on modern history. Not one of my departments could tell me how the German or Austrian Empires are organized, and one section distinguished itself by never having heard of George the Fifth. Statements in newspapers about foreign ministers are interpreted as referring to religious teachers. Not the slightest knowledge exists in the minds of these eighteen and twenty-year-old young men and women of the real significance of the great historic movements which created the civilization in which they live. The religion they follow, the laws under which they live, the custom and tradition of their family and community life are all unknown to them as far as their origin or meaning is concerned. They know nothing about history, not because they have been badly taught, but because they have not been taught at all.

If this is true of those who come to us, so is it true of hundreds, nay thousands, more who are products of our educational system and who are annually turned out into the world denied their historical birthright. Until history becomes a proper part of the high school course, how it is taught will be of little significance. The reasons for these conditions I have not time to state here, and you know them yourselves. A few years ago I was urging compulsory history to the president of a local school board in a fine suburban town less than ten miles from New York. He seemed amazed at my argument. "Do you think," he answered, "that the people should be taxed to pay for the teaching of history in a public high school? Let them read up on history when they go out, if they want to; public taxation should be used to teach something worth while." Naturally such a point of view means that any one can teach history, and the requirements for the history teacher would be like his or her salary the minimum. The college entrance examination, by stressing one course only, has not dignified the work in history, and in many small high schools the history is merely an adjunct of the classical department.

No one could believe in the value of training more than I do, or count more highly the necessity that the history teacher be a master of his craft, but until history becomes a subject worth teaching, until it takes its place as a vital factor in secondary education, our discussions will be more academic than practical. Unquestionably, there is more interest in the study of history to-day.

One of the innumerable results of the war is this sudden interest in history shown by the general public. The average man has awakened to the fact that an elementary knowledge of the life of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln does not furnish a satisfactory explanation of the universe. He may in time insist that his children be taught some history in his schools—perhaps then we can discuss how they shall be taught.

R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.: May I make one point in defense of a certain type of college that does not properly prepare teachers of history?

The point is that this type of college is not in the business of making history teachers. It has not set for itself any such task. During the period that I have taught history at Haverford College I should estimate that about 250 students have taken one or more of my courses in history. Of this number I can recall only four who have attempted to teach history after leaving college. Two of these secured the necessary pedagogical training at a university that professes to prepare people to teach history. The other two took only the one required history course at Haverford in their Freshman year, and so, forsooth, knew enough of the subject to teach it in such a school as would be willing to employ such teachers.

Probably not over two per cent of those who study history at Haverford College ever try to teach the subject. It would seem hardly just, therefore, to blame such a college for not adjusting its courses in history to the special preparation of history teachers.

It is not uncommon, I believe, in the meetings of this Association for the colleges to suffer castigation for fixing certain iron-clad entrance requirements that some high schools cannot conveniently meet. The high school teachers reiterate on such occasions that they are not in the exclusive business of preparing pupils to matriculate at college; that only a small percentage of their students ever go to college.

It is for a similar reason that certain colleges do not offer elaborate pedagogical training to prepare their graduates to teach history. Such colleges are not in the business of turning out history teachers. They plan their courses and conduct their classes with the not unworthy object of making historical knowledge and training of such service that their graduates may become intelligent members of society and useful citizens of the state.

Having some premonition of the chastisement that awaited the colleges in this meeting, I entered the room with some trepidation. I now offer this defense and explanation in the hope that I may get safely out again at the close of the session.

C. A. Herrick, of Girard College, Philadelphia, expressed the belief that our failure to get better teaching is due to a lack of interest in historical studies and our failure to give history and the related subjects of economics and civics a proper place in American education. In support of this contention, he cited the example of Germany. He drew attention to the large place which history was made to occupy in German education, from the elementary schools on. It was held that not only has this emphasis on historical studies resulted in a higher efficiency in teaching, but that it had had a profound impression on the German nation. The supreme test of German education, it was said, was now being made, and the love of the German for Fatherland and his service to his country in time of need were the results of a system of training in which a large emphasis has been placed upon a study of German history and German institutions. History, the speaker urged, could only come to her own in American schools when there was a new regard for its value and place.

Harriet E. Wyckoff, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn: The production of trained teachers, like the production of anything else, is largely controlled by the laws of supply and demand. Under present conditions, a teacher who has specialized in history can find a suitable field for labor in only a comparatively small number of schools. In the schools of small towns, to which inexperienced teachers fresh from college usually go, history is elective and frequently only ancient history is taught. Only those who need history to fulfil college entrance requirements, and a few who find it especially interesting elect it, and there is no demand for a trained teacher. They must have a trained teacher of mathematics and Latin, but anyone who has a few spare periods and a text book is supposed to be able to teach history. I have in mind one young lady who specialized in history at Teachers College. She is a bright girl, a good student, and will make an excellent history teacher if she ever finds a position where she can teach that subject. So far as I know, she has not yet found such a position, although she was graduated in June, 1913.

Nothing would do more to promote the training of history teachers than a change in courses of study that would make history a required subject instead of an elective. Of course the objection will be made to this that there is no room in the curriculum for any more subjects. This difficulty may easily be solved by omitting something else. To one who is not bound by mediæval ideals of education, it is difficult to explain why, for any pupil who is not going into scientific work, algebra and geometry are more useful than history; or why, except for those who wish a classical education, Latin should have a greater claim. Whatever may be the

special life-work of an individual, the business which all have in common is the business of being an intelligent citizen of the United States and of the world. It is difficult to see how this can be accomplished without some knowledge of history.

If history were made a required subject, so that a teacher trained to teach history could find a position at a fair salary where he could follow his chosen work, I believe that the demand of students would soon lead the colleges to supply the training.

James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn: A graduate of the Boys' High School, now in Cornell, in speaking from the platform of the school recently said among other things that it seemed to be a matter of worriment with the college instructors that teaching in the high schools was so poor, and with the high school teachers that instruction in the colleges was so bad. This young man, perhaps without realizing it, hit two heads a blow which both deserved. Outside of our large centers of population we must acknowledge that the sort of preparation given in our high schools is so mediocre as to cause discouragement to the collegiate instructors. Be that as it may, it is not my purpose to-day to touch on that phase of the question, which, I know, has excellent possibilities, but rather to confine my attention to certain returns from the colleges made by the graduates of the school of which I am the head. Without any attempt to give details, I wish merely in a most prosaic and categorical way to lay down their complaints.

First, they say that the instruction that they get in their freshman year is discouragingly poor, that their instructors are almost all extremely young and inexperienced men who compare very unfavorably with the teachers whom they had in the secondary school. This sort of thing goes on year after year. There seems to be no authority in the college which is exercised to the extent of dictating to the older and more experienced instructors and telling them that they must go down and teach the freshmen. Either this must be done if we are to get experienced teachers for the freshmen or we must frankly inaugurate the system of professorial fees for each student such as is to be found in German universities. I take it that there would be no dearth of experienced teachers for those large freshman courses were each instructor of freshmen to receive head money. The statements, "I do not wish to teach crude freshmen all my life," and "college teaching would be pleasant if it weren't for the students," would be lost in an excess of volunteers for freshman work and those graduate and specialized courses where few students appear would be left to the young instructor with his recently acquired Ph.D. The worst of our present situation is that nothing is done and these youthful in-

structors of freshmen are left to their own resources. Rare is the college where the more experienced professor drops into a young instructor's class room and gives him helpful hints and suggestions as to the conduct of his work. That "smacks" too much of pedagogy for which the college professor has only too frequently nothing but contempt. "Such supervision is fit only for secondary and elementary schools." Somehow or other collegiate instructors, unlike their brethren in the secondary and elementary schools, seem to be born teachers, and do not need to take lessons in such perfectly obvious and ridiculously easy things as "control of class," "how to interest your pupils," "how to avoid wasting your time and that of your students." The departments of pedagogy run in connection with our universities have courses on how to teach in our elementary and secondary schools, but we look in vain for courses on how to teach in colleges. Yet in France such courses are to be found, and they seem to be possessed of the notion over there that a young man who is going to teach in a college needs to have some instruction for his work besides mere subject-matter and the imitation of the faults of his worst professors. Nor is the poor instructor in the college confined to the younger men. Recently I heard and saw (for the illustration was graphic) two young professors in a New England college giving imitations of the professors under whom they had studied at universities. If I were skilful in mimicry I wish I might show you how they imitated the atrociously bad examples of teaching which they had had from their elder professors. The fuddling over the notes, the only too obvious violation of the principle of a daily preparation for the lecture or lesson, the lack of economy of time, had gone on for years. Every student knew about it, but seemed to think that, like the poor, such professors were a necessary and common evil. The President knew, or should have known, about it and still there was no one in those universities who seemed to have the power or the inclination to go to such inefficient men, as we do in the elementary and secondary schools, and say: "Here, this sort of instruction will never do. It is a crime against the student. It is taking from him his tuition fees, but giving him nothing in return."

Another complaint by our returning graduates is that they are not held down to strict accountability for their work at frequent enough intervals and that they get into habits of procrastination which they were not allowed to form in the secondary school. Attempts to remedy such conditions has brought forth the statement that the ideal of the college is to develop manliness and responsibility. "A boy has now reached the age of eighteen and should stand on his own feet. If he does not keep up in his work without being constantly held to account that is his lookout. Let him

flunk and get out. We do not want that type here." To support a theory they permit the student to become the victim of those habits of idleness and procrastination which have been execrated by the business world.

In closing may I express the hope that the colleges will take up the problem of finding some remedies for the faults of which our returning graduates so frequently complain. Were our teachers to complain, perhaps, you would not be inclined to listen so attentively, but surely you will try to do something for your students, even to the extent of vesting power in one executive to say what courses shall be given, and how and by whom.

Livingston R. Schuyler, College of the City of New York, said that he had risen to ask the Chairman of the Committee, Principal Fairley, whether his report was to be taken as a final one, or whether it was only a partial report made with the expectation of gaining information at the present meeting which would enable the Committee to complete its work and make its final report at the Spring Meeting. After having the last view confirmed by Dr. Fairley he went on to say that as a sort of practical ending of the morning's meeting he ventured to express the hope that as the student in his College Entrance Examination paper was directed to indicate the manner of his work and the text book used, so the time might come when the student would also be able truthfully to fill out another answer,—namely, that his teacher was not a specialist in English or Physics who was filling in a vacant period by taking a class in History, but one who had been trained with the idea of making that his principal work.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE BUSINESS MEETING

The annual Spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was called to order in the Faculty room, Nassau Hall, Princeton University, at 12:30 on Saturday, May 2, 1914, by the President, Dr. Albert E. McKinley, Editor of the History Teachers Magazine.

The following temporary committees were appointed:

On Nominations—Miss Florence E. Stryker, Montclair Normal School; President C. A. Herrick, Girard College; Mr. Percy L. Kaye, Baltimore City College.

On Resolutions—Miss Elizabeth Briggs, Horace Mann School; Professor Arthur C. Howland, University of Pennsylvania; Principal A. M. Wolfson, Julia Richman High School.

On the Treasurer's Report—Professor R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College; Principal A. M. Wolfson, Julia Richman High School.

The Treasurer read the following report for the years 1912-1914:

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March, 1912	$371.72	
Dues paid since that date	397.00	
Sale of Proceedings	11.00	
Royalty on Bibliography of History for Schools	27.12	$806.84

DISBURSEMENTS

Expressage	$ 7.05	
Committee on Local Arrangements at Syracuse	8.75	
Postage and Printing	223.75	
History Teachers Magazine for two years	200.00	
Longmans, Guarantee on Bibliogrpahy of History for Schools	218.36	
Incidentals, telephone, exchange, etc	3.74	
Debt to Professor Henry Johnson, paid	59.93	
Typewriting	7.80	$729.38
Balance on hand April 23, 1914		77.46
		$806.84

Report of the Auditing Committee

We have examined the accounts of the treasurer for the years 1912-1914, showing a balance of $77.46 on deposit in the University Branch of the Corn Exchange Bank in New York City, and find the accounts to be correct.

(Signed) R. W. Kelsey,
A. M. Wolfson.

Report of the Executive Committee

The Executive Committee reported invitations from the College of the City of New York for the Association to take part in the joint meetings of various educational associations to be held at the College of the City of New York on November 27 and 28, 1914; and from Johns Hopkins University for the Association to hold its regular Spring meeting in Baltimore in April, 1915. Both of these invitations were accepted.

The Committee recommended that $25.00 be appropriated for the work of the Committee on the Training of History Teachers for the Secondary Schools. Principal William Fairley, Chairman of this committee, made a brief report of the plans of the committee, which has in view a campaign to convince the colleges and universities that if properly prepared students are to be sent to them it will be necessary for these institutions to give to the schools better prepared teachers than they have been willing or able to do in the past. The recommendation was adopted.

The Committee recommended that the Association join with the American Historical Association, the New England History Teachers Association, and others in supporting the History Teachers Magazine. It was voted that $100 be appropriated for this purpose, and the treasurer authorized to pay this amount to the management of the magazine when it was signified that a sufficient amount had been subscribed by others to insure the conduct of the magazine.

The Committee reported regret that some of the standing committees of the Association seemed unable to make progress with their work, and the hope that they may renew their energies.

Report of Special Committees

The committee appointed to consider the desirability of forming a collection of materials for use by the teacher of history, economics

and government, consisting of Professors Henry Johnson, Charles A. Beard and Edgar Dawson, reported favorably on the undertaking; recommended that such a collection be made and placed at Hunter College in New York City; and asked to be discharged. On a vote by the Association approving this report and authorizing a committee to make the collection, the President appointed on this committee Dr. A. B. MacLear of Hunter College, and Professors Henry Johnson and Charles A. Beard. The Association voted $100 for the use of this committee to be expended under the direction of the Council.

The committee on nominations reported as follows: President, Professor Henry Johnson of Teachers College; Vice-president, Miss Sarah A. Dynes of the State Normal School, Trenton; Secretary-Treasurer, Professor Edgar Dawson of Hunter College; additional members of the Council, Professor John M. Vincent of Johns Hopkins University and Miss Jessie C. Evans of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia. These officers were duly elected:

The committee on resolutions reported as follows: Resolved, 1 That the program committee and the speakers are to be congratulated on presenting substantial and stimulating papers within the prescribed time limit, a performance beyond the ability of the American Historical Association. 2 That the Association expresses thanks for the annual debt to the American Book Company for publishing its Proceedings, an advantage the Association could not provide itself without difficulty. 3 That in recording the visit of the Association to the State Normal School at Trenton, N. J., and to Princeton University, the Secretary be directed to express to Miss Dynes and Miss Carver of the State Normal School, and to Professor Paul VanDyke of Princeton, the grateful appreciation of the Association for being favored guests. The personal greeting of President Hibben and Dean West has made the Association feel doubly welcome.

Other Business

Dr. James Sullivan spoke of the movement which is spreading through the country to provide a more specific statement of what one can hope to teach to secondary school pupils in the field of history. He called attention to a proposal that committees of various associations of history teachers and scholars unite in advancing this

movement, and moved that a committee be appointed to represent this Association in that movement. On his motion being carried the following committee was appointed by the president: Dr. James Sullivan of the Boys High School, Brooklyn; Miss Elizabeth Briggs, Horace Mann School; Dr. Helen L. Young, Hunter College; Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark; and Professor W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Alfred C. Bryan, delegate from the New York Conference, introduced the following resolution: In view of the growing appreciation of the value of primary church records, Resolved, 1 That the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland urge upon the national and state church organizations the importance of collecting, protecting from fire, and carefully preserving all church records. 2 That the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland ask the aid of the American Historical Association and other important associations in reaching the larger church organizations. This resolution was referred to the Council for further action.

The President appointed as a committee on local arrangements in Baltimore for the meeting in April, 1915: Dr. R. V. D. Magoffin of Johns Hopkins University; Dean Eleanor L. Lord, Goucher College; and Dr. Percy L. Kaye of Baltimore City College.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), and a council, consisting of the foregoing officers, two members elected by the Association, the ex-presidents of the Association, and one delegate from each local conference recognized by the Association. These officers, except the delegates and ex-presidents, shall be elected by ballot at each regular Spring meeting of the Association. In the Council shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association.

Article IV. Meetings

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

OFFICERS AND COUNCIL, 1914-1915

President
HENRY JOHNSON
Teachers' College, New York City

Vice-President
SARAH A. DYNES
State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Secretary-Treasurer
EDGAR DAWSON
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C. M. ANDREWS
Yale University

J. H. ROBINSON
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Girard College

ELEANOR L. LORD
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JAMES SULLIVAN
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History Teachers Magazine

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Johns Hopkins University

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Baltimore City College

J. ARCHIBALD CORLIES
Cleveland School

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High School of Commerce

COMMITTEES OF THE ASSOCIATION

COMMITTEE ON THE COLLEGE BOARD'S EXAMINATIONS IN HISTORY:

A. M. Wolfson, Julia Richman High School, New York City.
D. C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark, N. J.
E. H. Pahlow, Lawrenceville Academy, N. J.

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Carlton Hayes, Columbia University, New York City.
E. L. Stevenson, Hispanic Museum, New York City.
James Sullivan, Boys High School, Brooklyn.

COMMITTEE ON TEACHING OF ECONOMICS:

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COMMITTEE ON MATERIALS FOR THE HISTORY TEACHER:

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W. D. Lewis, William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia.
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William Tappan, Jefferson School for Boys, Baltimore, Md.
E. W. Lyttle, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.

COMMITTEE ON MAKING HISTORY TEACHING MORE DEFINITE:

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Elizabeth Briggs, Horace Mann School, New York City.
Helen L. Young, Hunter College, New York City.
D. C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark, N. J.
W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

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Evans, Jessie,	William Penn High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Ewing, E. G.,	Franklin High School,	Reisterstown, Md.
Faber, Charlotte A.,	East High School,	Rochester, N. Y.

Fairchild, J. R.,	American Book Co.,	New York City.
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Ferguson, Arthur H.,	North High School,	Syracuse, N. Y.
Ferry, Nellie P.,	Miss Sayward's School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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